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HARD AT WORK: WOMEN IN THE UTAH LABOR FORCE

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PREFACE
The Questions and the Problems

As a female labor force participant and a woman whose formative years coincided with the height of the "Women's Movement," I have been tremendously interested in the changes that have occurred in the work experience of the Utah female. Some statistics surprised me; other data confirmed what I had already guessed from casual observation. I prepared this publication to provide the information necessary to satisfy the curiosity of those interested in how women are changing their role in Utah's work places (including myself).

The major problem in compiling a report on women in Utah's labor force stems from the fact that scant state-specific data are available. The United States Decennial Censuses of Population rank as the best statistical source for information on working Utah females. A serious statistician can glean much detailed information from Census data—income, earnings, education, marital status, occupation, participation rates, etc. Nevertheless, major changes occur between decades.

Fortunately, the Bureau of the Census conducts the Current Population Survey (CPS) for the Bureau of Labor Statistics on a regular basis. The Current Population Survey makes available recent (although somewhat limited) annual data for state labor force statistics by sex and contributes the most up-to-date figures. Current detailed national data are available, and I have included this information and garnered data from other sources to shed light on the working women of Utah's labor force.

Lecia Parks Langston, Labor Market Economist

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A Brief Overview

DEMOGRAPHICS

- Females currently make up the largest share of Utah's population (50.3 percent in 1987).
- Utah exhibits the youngest population in the country and is one of the fastest growing states.
- In 1986, the share of the Utah population under age 18 registered 37 percent – the highest in the country.
- The ratio of married couples compared to the total adult population in Utah has dropped significantly in the past few decades. However, Utahns still retain a higher propensity for the married state than do their fellow Americans.
- Simple observation and statistics reveal that not only are more people getting divorced, but adults are remaining single longer.
- The 1985 Utah birth rate weighed in at 23 births per 1,000 population; the U.S. rate was only 16 babies per 1,000.
- In Utah as well as the nation, fertility rates are declining. Utah women in their childbearing years are delaying births and are limiting overall family size when compared to their immediate predecessors.
- The drop in Utah female fertility rates falls behind the decline in fertility rates nationwide.

- Overall, educational attainment is increasing for both sexes within the Beehive State.

- While more than half of all U.S. college students were women in the fall of 1982, only 43 percent of Utah college students were female (Utah ranked at the bottom of the list of U.S. states).

- Utah women still show a disproportionate tendency to major in the humanities, education, and nursing. However, some changes are being made – more and more business, law, and medical degrees are going to women.

- Research indicates that several interesting correlations exist between these demographic characteristics and women's labor force experience:

  The fewer children a women has the more likely she is to be employed outside the home. Declining fertility rates suggest higher overall labor force participation.

  Women who have or expect to have children generally earn less than childless women.

  The higher a women's educational attainment the fewer children she has or expects to have.

  The more schooling a woman obtains the more likely she is to be a labor force participant.

  The closer a wife's earnings are to her husband's, the more likely she is to delay having children.

- Women who postpone childbirth display a solid attachment to the labor force both before and after their first child is born.

- Early marriage is more of a deterrent to women's educational attainment than it is to men's.

- As single women are the most likely labor force participants, the fact that more women are delaying marriage suggests a higher overall participation rate for women.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

- Utah women have been steadily moving into the workplace since the turn of the century. They currently participate in the labor force in record numbers.

  In 1900, an estimated 13 percent of Utah's adult females worked outside the home.

  By 1940, almost a fourth of Utah women were labor force participants.

  In 1987, the Current Population Survey estimates that 60 percent of all Utah women 16 years and older were either working or looking for a job.

- While it may seem that women have flooded into the job market in the last few years, the actual increase has been relatively steady.
- Utah's female participation rate registers higher than the U.S. average (56 percent in 1987), in spite of the fact that Utah women initially lagged behind the rest of the nation.
- Female rates tend to be understated as the average woman statistically outlives the average man.
- Women 20 to 24 show the highest propensity to be labor force participants – their rate exceeds 78 percent.
- More than half (58 percent) of Utah's married women have moved into the civilian labor force.
- Participation for Utah women in the typical "child-bearing" years (ages 20-35) registered 71 percent in 1987.
- Utah mothers of young (preschool) children, while least likely of all categories to work, have joined the work force at the fastest rate – about 37 percent were labor force participants in 1980 compared to 20 percent in 1960.

- Utah women made up 44 percent of the Utah civilian labor force in 1987.

- Between the years of 1950 and 1980, Utah's labor force expanded more than one and one-half times; women accounted for 62 percent of this growth.

- The only instance in recent history when women have not sustained higher unemployment rates than men occurred in the 1982-83 recession. At that time, male-dominated industries (such as mining, construction, heavy manufacturing) experienced the brunt of the economic malaise.

- Women make up the largest share of discouraged workers — those who have stopped looking for work because of real or perceived barriers to their employment.

- Approximately 35 percent of the 1987 Utah female labor force participants maintained part-time status compared to 12 percent of Utah males.

- Gains in the average expected female worklife have outdistanced gains in life expectancy by two to one.

- Why have women continued their move into the work place in ever increasing numbers?

  For increasing numbers of women, work force participation has become an economic necessity.

  Falling fertility, smaller families, and delayed childbirth make combining a job with home responsibilities easier.

  The increasing educational attainment of women means they have access to more interesting and better paying jobs.

  Changes in social morés make employment acceptable and even mandatory for certain groups of women.

> *Perhaps the most important reason for the influx of women into the labor force can be stated simply—the jobs were there. Recent growth in jobs has been heavily concentrated in areas that are traditionally thought of as "women's work."*

- Nearly three-fourths of all Utah female labor force nonparticipants stated that home responsibilities kept them from seeking paid employment in 1987.

OCCUPATIONS

- Women are making inroads into certain male sanctums of employment. However, in some ways, occupational segregation by sex is just as pronounced today as it was at the turn of the century. Women still tend to remain in jobs where more than half their occupational co-workers are of the same sex.

- Between the Census years of 1970 and 1980, Utah women made the largest gains in occupations such as insurance investigator, computer operator, science technician, bus driver and public relation specialist.

- Women appear to be making more progress into professional, technical and managerial jobs than blue collar, mechanical or structural jobs.

- Backsliding with respect to occupational segregation is occurring in some areas – secretarial and typing professions have become even more heavily packed with females than they were previously. The 1980 Census showed that 99 percent of the secretaries in Utah were women.

- The industrial concentrations of women closely reflect occupational outlines.

  Women are severely under-represented in such industries as mining, construction, and heavy manufacturing.

  Women make up most of the private household workers and the overwhelming majority of unpaid family workers.

- Why worry about the fact that there is sexual segregation by occupation in the job market?

  Economists contend that occupational segregation with total disregard for individual ability creates inefficiencies and inequities in the system.

Inefficient allocation lowers the country's overall economic output and hurts everyone.

Jobs traditionally held to be "woman's work" almost invariably pay low salaries. They also lack status, and provide limited chances for advancement.

As more dual earner families emerge, these factors affect not only women but their husband's and family's economic well-being.

- A number of theories have been advanced to account for the perpetuity of "the pink collar ghetto":

  Women may consciously trade off higher wages, chances for greater advancement, and job status for the flexibility and reduced demands that female occupations seem to offer. Thus, it becomes easier for them to combine work and family responsibilities.

  Women may underestimate the chances that they will work continuously or later on in life. (The "Prince Charming or Mr. Wealthy Will Carry Me Away" syndrome.)

  Women may select predominately female occupations because they think that these jobs are the only ones open to them.

  Women may be denied access to certain jobs because of hidden or outright sexual discrimination.

INCOME

- In 1979, according to Census data, the median earnings for year-round, full-time, female workers in Utah registered only 53 percent of the median earnings for the comparable group of Utah men. U.S. women made 56 percent of the average U.S. male wage.

- Historically, the U.S. male/female earnings ratio hovered right around 60 percent – until the 1980s. (Figures vary depending on which data series is considered and on what groups of workers are included.)

- The wage gap is closing. The most current BLS reading of the U.S. earnings ratio (weekly wages for year-round, full-time workers) for 1987 registered at 70 percent. Current Utah data are unavailable.

- The best paying jobs for Utah men also tend to be the best paying jobs for Utah women (managers, doctors, lawyers). However, women's earnings in those professions do not even approach those of men.

- In 1979, the median income for Utah women with three years of college was less than the median income of Utah men with a seventh grade education.

- By age, the male/female income gap is smallest for those under 20 years of age.

- Utah wives contributed 16 percent of married couple earnings in 1979 (less than American wives in general who contributed almost one-fifth).

- The Census shows that the more education the husband has the smaller the fraction of the family's income is contributed by the wife regardless of her educational background.

- Why does the earnings gap exist?

Women have "career preferences" for lower paying "female occupations." However, even in occupations which are predominantly female, men consistently out earn women and some research indicates that "female occupations" may pay less merely because women work in them.

Many women want to move in and out of the work force, choosing to remain at home, if they can, while their children are young. However, research indicates that most women can be separated into two categories – those always in the labor market and those always out. Moreover, women with life-long job commitments do not make significantly more money than those women who move in and out of the labor force.

Women tend to have spent less time in a particular job than men. Research indicates that this discrepancy accounts for only about 4 percent of "the gap." However, women have only recently been moving into "high paying" jobs in any significant numbers and most have not yet reached the top of their professions.

Women are not as highly educated as men and tend to remain disproportionately illiterate in mathematics, science and engineering. Again, research shows that differences in education account for only a small portion of the earnings differential.

Women are paid less than men with the same characteristics on the same job because they produce less. As far as this theory can be measured, equally productive men and women receive unequal wages.

Although most women are delaying marriage/childbirth and obtaining a better education, significant numbers of women are marrying too young, becoming pregnant too soon, and divorcing at young ages. With no skills or training and often not even a high school education, their projected income is limited. These women tend to drag the average down.

Women may be paid less because they are discriminated against. Most research indicates that only half of the differences in male/female earnings can be accounted for by the factors stated above. This seems to imply some sort of institutionalized discrimination, but does not prove it.

- "Comparable worth" is one remedy being proposed to help eliminate the income gap and provide equity. A comparable worth system numerically ranks different occupations and uses this ranking to assign salaries.
- The battle over comparable worth still rages on in the courts.
- According to the Census, one-third of all female-headed households in Utah had incomes below the poverty level in 1979.

Young unmarried mothers, displaced homemakers, and elderly females make up a large portion of the poor.

Due to the large social outlays required to sustain those in the ranks of poverty and on the basis of humanitarian concerns, much interest has been expressed by Utah government in integrating these women into the work force and preparing them to adequately support themselves.

MISCELLANEOUS

- One major concern of working parents is the quality and cost of child care. Government and employers provide little help in resolving the child care issue. Often the cost of child care negates much of the woman's earnings.

- Many times a woman's employment outside the home creates marital tensions. In adapting to the wife's employment, the central problem for husbands seems to be related to self-esteem – getting over any embarrassment, guilt or apprehension associated with the wife's employment. For wives, the central problem appears to be getting the husband to share the housework.

- Contrary to some predictions, researchers have found that employment is by far the most consistent tie to a woman's good health. Multiple roles appear to be linked to good health.

- Research indicates that the effects of legislation to eliminate sexual discrimination in the workplace have been marginal at best. Moreover, government tax policies (income as well as Social Security) actually penalize two-earner families.

THE FUTURE

- Participation in the labor force for women should increase in the future – the Bureau of Labor Statistics predicts that 60 percent of adult women will be U.S. labor force participants by the year 2000.
- Approximately 62 percent of Utah women should be labor force participants by the year 2000.
- Most employment growth is expected to come in the service sector – jobs typically held by women. The very fact that women work at all generates demand for service-related products.
- Working against rapid improvement in the areas of occupations and incomes is the sheer size of the female labor force. A great deal of change must occur to make any statistical improvement evident.

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

UTAH WOMEN—Now and Then

In the first election following Utah's 1896 admission to statehood, Mattie Hughes Cannon, a medical doctor, ran against her husband for the state legislature, won the seat, and became the first female state senator in the nation. Ida Ione Cook, the first woman university president, presided over the University of Utah from 1871 to 1873. One of the United States' first women mayors, Mary Howard, headed Kanab's all woman city council in 1912. The Utah Bar admitted lady lawyers, Phoebe Couzens and Georgie Snow in 1872; and in 1873, Romania B. Pratt Penrose distinguished herself as Utah's first woman doctor, surgeon, and resident physician at Deseret Hospital.

Since the inception of Utah as a territory and a state, women have played an important role in the State's economy—although not always in the paid labor force. Remarkably, the issues of women's employment have changed little. Suffragettes in 1885 expounded much the same ideology as do feminists in 1989. What was then "emancipation" has changed today to "equal rights" and "liberation." Equal pay, equal opportunity, and equal access to employment were heatedly discussed then as now.

However, women's employment circumstances have changed; women have been steadily making themselves felt in the work force. At the turn of the century, an estimated 13 percent of Utah's female population worked outside the home. In 1940, not even a fourth of Utah's working age women worked outside the home or were looking for work. Now, current estimates place 1987 female labor force participation in Utah at practically 60 percent. Undoubtedly, women are now doing what before they only talked about. Females have been at the vortex of phenomenal changes in society as well as in the work place. However, in some areas—

notably pay and occupation – progress appears to proceed at a snail's pace.

This publication examines how the work experience of Utah women has changed in recent years. In order to accomplish this task, the report examines areas that affect and are affected by women's participation in the work force. The body of this report is divided into four sections. To begin with, the publication covers demographic characteristics for the State (population, marital status, education, etc.) and follows with a discussion of the actual change in women's work participation and habits. Subsequently, because of their important and controversial nature, the areas of female occupations and income/earnings each get a chapter to themselves. The body of the publication concludes with a section which pulls together various female-related employment issues and effects. For those keenly interested in statistics and definitions, the appendix offers further detail. Some may not want to wade through all the information contained in this booklet. For those individuals, the executive summary will prove useful.

What are the issues and problems associated with female employment? How does a Utah woman's experience differ from her sisters nationwide? This report will not only address these questions, but it will provide insights into exactly what is happening to Utah's female work force.

CHAPTER 1
DEMOGRAPHICS
The Changing Face of Utah's Female Population

"We believe that women are useful, not only to sweep houses, wash dishes, make beds, and raise babies, but that they should stand behind the counter, study law or physics, or become good bookkeepers and be able to do the business in any counting house, and all this to enlarge their sphere of usefulness for the benefit of society at large."

Brigham Young
Utah Governor and Colonizer

CHAPTER 1

DEMOGRAPHICS

The Changing Face of Utah's Female Population

Who are the working women of Utah? Recent changes in the labor force experience of women cannot be fully understood without examining other demographic transitions. Variations in population, marital status, and fertility all affect or are affected by the migration of women into the labor force.

The statistics presented in this report will probably confirm what you've already guessed from just paying attention to current events. However, understanding the forces behind the rush of women to the workplace requires analyzing the changing face of the population. At times, the inter-relationship between demographic characteristics makes causal associations unclear. However, examining changes in the population creates a better picture of Utah's female labor force.

POPULATION TRENDS — Growing Young

Between 1950 and 1980, the number of Utah's inhabitants more than doubled, while during the same time period, the U.S. populace increased by little more than half. Population expansion in Utah continues to outstrip the nation. Utah ranked sixth among all states in population growth between 1980 and 1985—even though some out-migration has occurred in recent years.

In Utah, and in the country at large, the growth rate for females surpassed the comparable rate for males. Utah men outnumbered Utah women in 1950, but the apportionment between the sexes has gradually shifted. According to the Census, by 1980, Utah females made up the majority (50.4 percent) of the State's population. In 1987, the female portion of the population approximately equaled the 1980 ratio. The country followed the same trend, although U.S. women started out with a plurality in 1950 and have increased their share ever since.

GROUP BY GROUP

So, women make up a larger share of the State's population. Does the same hold true for all age groups? In the "65 and older" category, females outnumber men to a significant degree. Hardly surprising. Most people are aware that most women outlive their spouses. Not so well known is the trend of the past four decades – women have augmented their part of this age group.

Some "experts" predicted that as more women entered the work force and experienced the same type of job-related tension as men, they would undergo more stress-induced disease and earlier death. However, in 1950, Utah's women made up 52 percent of those past retirement age -- by 1987, their share had jumped to almost 58 percent.

Women prevail in the older age groups. The implication? The age distribution tends to understate women's labor force participation. Excluding retirement-age individuals from participation rates results in higher figures for both sexes, but the impact is more dramatic for women because of their longevity.

FASTER THAN AVERAGE

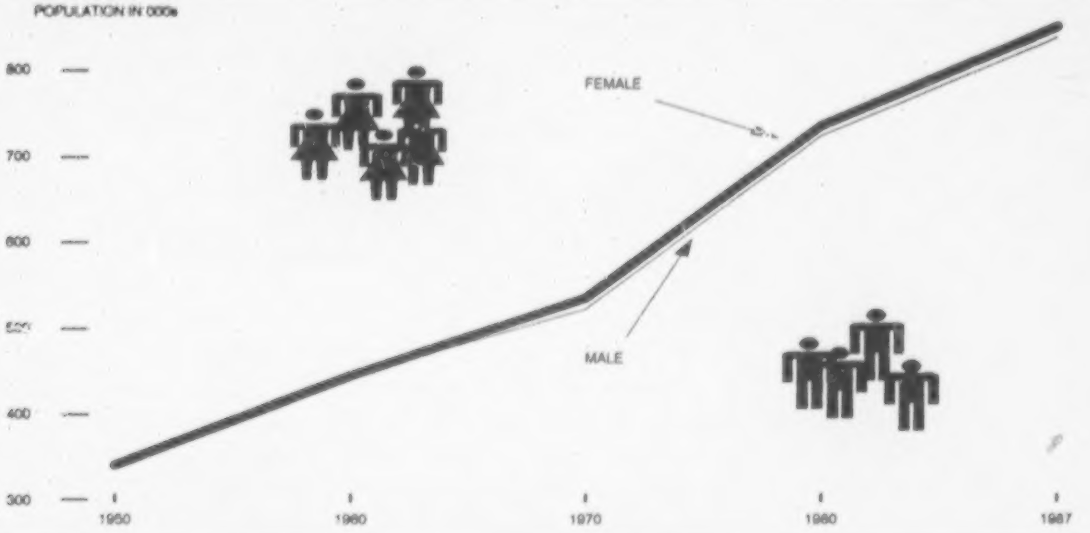
Table 1. Utah and U.S. Population By Sex 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987 *(Numbers In 000s)*

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1987	% Change 50-87
UTAH	**688.9**	**890.6**	**1,059.3**	**1,461.0**	**1,678.0**	**143.6**
Female	341.2	445.7	536.1	736.3	844.6	147.5
Male	347.6	444.9	523.2	724.7	833.4	139.8
U.S.	**151,325.8**	**179,325.7**	**203,210.2**	**226,545.8**	**243,827.0**	**61.1**
Female	76,139.2	91,022.6	104,328.4	116,498.3	124,888	64.0
Male	75,186.6	88,303.1	98,881.7	110,047.5	118,939.0	58.2

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census; Utah State Office Of Planning and Budget.

MORE WOMEN THAN MEN

Chart 1. Utah Population by Sex,1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987.



THE BABY OF THE COUNTRY

Unless you've been living in a media vacuum, you have undoubtedly heard Utah has the youngest population in the nation. According to the 1980 Census, Utah's median age of 24.2 years ranked as the lowest in the country. Utah's median age fell substantially below the national figure of 30.0 years. In 1980, one third of Utah's population had not reached the age of 16 and estimates for 1987 place Utah as number one in terms of the percentage of the populace under 18 years-old. In 1985, the portion of the U.S. populace under 18 years measured only 26 percent. In Utah, that ratio equaled a whopping 37 percent. (Someone said that in Utah you have a greater chance of being run over by a stroller than anywhere else in the country.)

However, there have been times in recent history when the proportion of Utah's population under "working age" has been even greater. The 1960 Census revealed 40 percent of Utah's inhabitants had not attained the age of 16, and roughly one-third of the U.S. community fell in the 0-to-15 year-old category—an obvious reflection of the "baby boom" of the 50s and early 60s. Note that in this age group – under working age – boys consistently outnumber girls (at least in data for the most recent four Censuses).

OF WORKING AGE

After covering the population distribution in the pre-work and post-work age groups, it seems only appropriate that the most relevant classification – those most likely to work – becomes the next topic of discussion. A scan of the data for the Utah populace between the ages of 16 and 64 for the census years 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980, reveals an interesting fact. Women tend to outnumber men in the working years both in Utah and in the country. Only in 1950, did more Utah men fall in the "working age" category than did women.

While both Utah and the U.S. showed a larger female share of 16-64 year-olds, the discrepancy between sexes was greater for the nation as a whole. Working age population shares outline the aging of the baby boom generation. In 1950, the ratio of Utah inhabitants in the 16 to 64 year-old classification registered almost 59 percent. The ratio dropped to 54 percent during 1960 (when boomers were babies); and by 1980, the ratio increased again to over 59 percent (as boomers matured).

Figures for the U.S. follow the same pattern as Utah data, although more of the country's populace (64 percent in 1980) congregates in this age category – again reflecting Utah's extremely young population. Disproportionate numbers of women appear in the

POPULATION PERCENTAGES

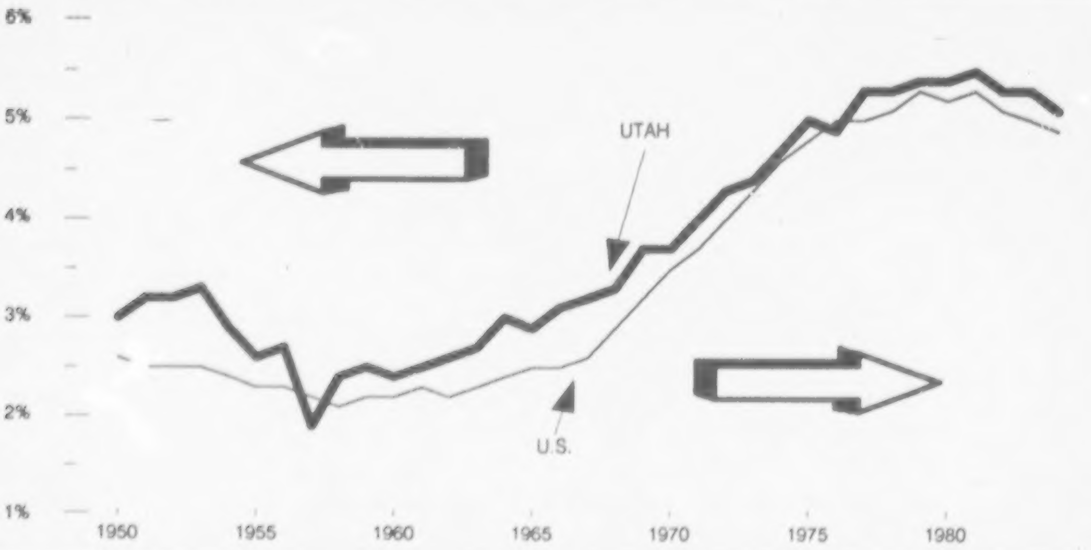
Table 2. Utah and U.S. Population Distribution by Sex 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1987
UTAH					
Female	49.5	50.0	50.6	50.4	50.3
Male	50.5	50.0	49.4	49.6	49.7
U.S.					
Female	50.3	50.8	51.3	51.4	51.2
Male	49.7	49.2	48.7	48.6	48.9

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census; Utah State Office Of Planning and Budget.

DIVORCE RATES ARE MODERATING

Chart 2. Utah and U.S. Divorce Rate, 1950-1984(Divorces per 1,000 Population)



age groups commonly eligible for employment. Given the right participation rates, women could possibly outnumber men in the labor force.

MARRIAGE/DIVORCE — Here Comes and There Goes the Bride

In 1950, 69 percent of Utah's marriageable-age population had been secured in the bonds of wedlock. By the 1980 Census, the share of "marrieds" had dropped to just 64 percent. However, a larger portion of Utahns reside in the state of matrimony than do Americans as a whole. Corresponding Census figures show nuptial ties bound only 58 percent of the U.S. population 15 and older (6 percentage points lower than Utah).

But, what has happened to all these people who used to be married? Common sense and a little observation indicates more and more of the populace are divorced — and the statistics agree. In 1950, Utah exhibited a divorce rate (number of divorces per 1,000 people) of 3.0; by 1982, the State's divorce rate had climbed to 5.4 percent.

FEWER AND FEWER MARRIEDS

Table 3. Utah/United States Percent Distribution, Persons 15 And Older, Marital Status By Sex 1950, 1960, 1970 and1980

MARITAL STATUS	1950		1960		1970		1980		Change 1950-1980	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
UTAH										
Single	19.0	25.7	17.3	22.7	22.1	27.4	21.5	27.1	2.5	1.4
Married	69.0	68.7	69.8	72.3	64.0	67.5	62.5	65.9	-6.5	-2.8
Separated	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.7	1.1	0.9	0.5	0.3
Widowed	9.0	2.7	9.4	2.2	9.2	1.8	8.3	1.5	-0.7	-1.2
Divorced	2.3	2.2	2.8	2.2	3.8	2.7	6.6	4.7	4.3	2.5
U.S.										
Single	18.8	24.9	17.3	23.2	20.6	26.4	22.9	29.7	4.4	4.8
Married	64.9	67.3	65.4	69.7	60.5	66.2	55.2	60.7	-9.7	-6.6
Separated	2.1	1.6	2.1	1.5	2.3	1.5	2.6	1.9	0.5	0.3
Widowed	12.0	4.2	12.4	3.5	12.7	3.1	12.3	2.5	0.3	-1.7
Divorced	2.4	2.0	2.9	2.2	4.0	2.8	7.1	5.3	4.7	3.3

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

THE TREND

Moreover, between 1950 and 1980, a 3.4 percentage point increase in the number of divorced Utahns occurred and an even bigger U.S. gain (4.0 points) was present. Not only are more individuals divorcing, but more are remaining single (or at least postponing marriage). Between 1950 and 1980, the share of never-marrieds increased almost 2 percentage points in Utah and 4.5 points in the U.S. During the same time period, the portion of the population appearing in the "widow/widower" category actually declined slightly.

While the average Utahn displays a stronger attachment to marriage than does his fellow American, Utah's populace has been following the trend of U.S. society. In fact, since 1950, Utah's divorce rate registered higher than the national average in all but one year—a circumstance which may stem from Utah's youthful marriages (which seem more likely to dissolve).

However, the State's higher marriage rate offsets its higher divorce rate—12.0 per 1,000 in 1982 compared with 10.8 for the entire

United States. Moreover, Utah's current marriage rate measures higher than the comparable 1950 figure leading statisticians to believe more remarriages now take place.

THE WORKING CONNECTION

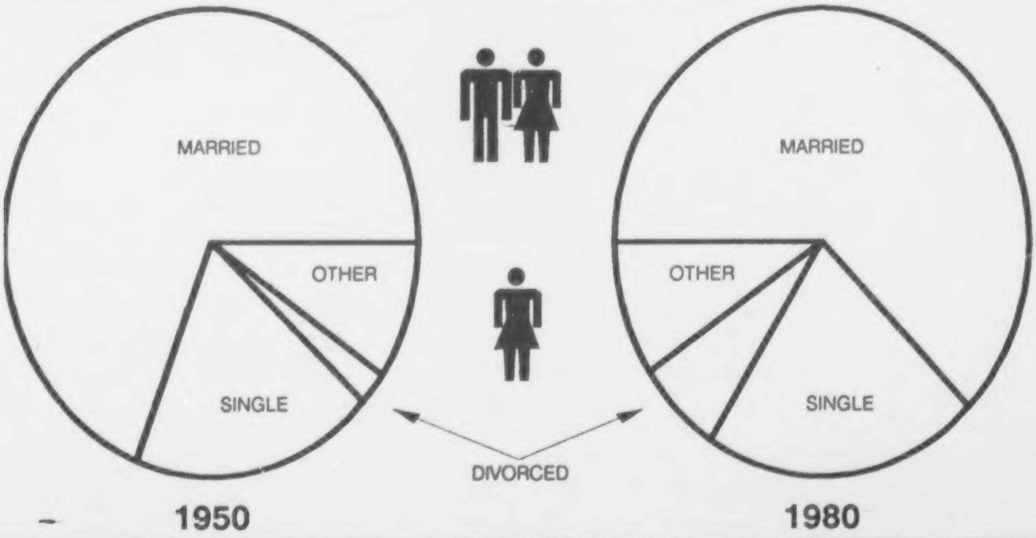
Why is marital status important in a report dealing with women in the labor force? In the first place, unmarried women have always been more apt to be labor force participants. Therefore, as fewer and fewer women are married at any given point in time, the chances increase that female labor force participation will expand. In addition, the change in marital proclivities provides one reason for the influx of women into paid employment.

Comparing the differences in the portions of never-married 20-to-24 year-olds between the censuses shows women (and men) are staying single longer. In 1960, only 26 percent of Utah females in the 20 to 24 year-old category had never married. By 1980, their share had risen to almost 39 percent.

Women in the U.S. as a whole are delaying marriage even longer—more than half of this age group had never married at the time of

FEWER WOMEN ARE MARRIED TODAY

Chart 3. Utah Female Distribution by Marital Status, 1950 and 1980



WOMEN ARE DELAYING MARRIAGE

Table 4. Utah and United States Percent Of Population Aged 20-24 Never Married By Sex, 1960, 1970 and 1980

	1960	1970	1980
UTAH			
Female	25.8	34.5	38.8
Male	53.3	50.8	54.9
U.S.			
Female	28.4	36.3	51.2
Male	53.1	55.5	68.2

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

the 1980 Census. National figures reveal women are marrying about two years later than they did at the end of World War II. However, Utah brides tend to be younger than the national average.

MORE TIME

Marriage postponement implies women now have more time to go to school or work before marrying. Therefore, women have more time to prepare themselves for a career. Men, too, are tying the knot later – the 2.5 year gap in the median age of brides and grooms has not changed. So, although women, on the average, have more years to lay the groundwork for a job before marriage than they did previously, they still lag behind men. Furthermore, women are less likely to continue with their education after marriage.

Not only does a woman's marital status influence her labor force participation, but the reverse also holds true – a women's employment affects her marital status. Research has shown that the longer a wife has worked in the preceding ten years the greater the chances either spouse had thought of divorce.[1] Moreover, other studies suggest that when wives earn high incomes, the likelihood a couple will eventually divorce increases.[2]

A wife's earnings may give her the financial independence to get out of a bad marriage. Research has also shown marital tensions (at least on the husband's side) increased when both spouses worked. However, this discord was closely related to recent changes in the wife's labor force status rather than to the employment itself.[3]

FERTILITY — Babies, Babies, Everywhere

Utah has the youngest population in the nation — a fact that introduces several implications. The existence of such a juvenile populace might lead to the supposition that the Beehive State has a hefty birth rate in comparison with the rest of the nation. Good supposition. In 1984, Utah's birth rate topped 23.5 births per 1,000 inhabitants — outstripping the U.S. figure of 15.5 births per 1,000. Only Alaska's 1984 birth rate ranked higher than the Utah figure.

Since 1950, Utah's birth rate has continually surpassed the national rate. But, in recent years the gap has widened. However, births for both the State and the country have dropped significantly since 1950. During the 1950s, Utah birth rates averaged in the low 30s while U.S. births per 1,000 registered in the mid-20s.

ONE MORE FIGURE

Another measure of fertility provides an approximation of how the population has changed. At census time, the government collects data on the number of "children ever born" to women. This information furnishes an outline of the trends in the total number of children women have in a lifetime. At the time of the 1950 Census, Utah women in their childbearing years (15-44) had produced a little over 1.7 offspring a piece. (It may be difficult to imagine fractions of a child, but that is statistical life.) The rate for "ever-married" Utah women ranked a little higher--more than 2.2 babies per woman. U.S. women had birthed 1.4 children each, and ever-married females had produced just under 1.9 a piece.

Now, how have things changed? When the 1980 census was conducted, Utah women (15-44 years-old) had delivered a little under 1.7 children each, while for ever-married females the average rate had increased to almost 2.4 babies a piece.

A person looking only at these figures might assume the number of children a woman has in a lifetime has not changed substantially. However, closer examination of 1960 census data, exposes how the baby boom influences these statistics. In 1960, Utah females of childbearing age had produced an average of almost

2.1 children per woman and not quite 2.8 children per ever-married woman. Since then, rates have shown a significant decline. However, remember, a decade and a half long depression plus a war had curtailed births to a certain extent during the 30s and 40s. Therefore, figures for "children ever born" tend to be lower than normal in 1950 when the baby boom was in its infancy.

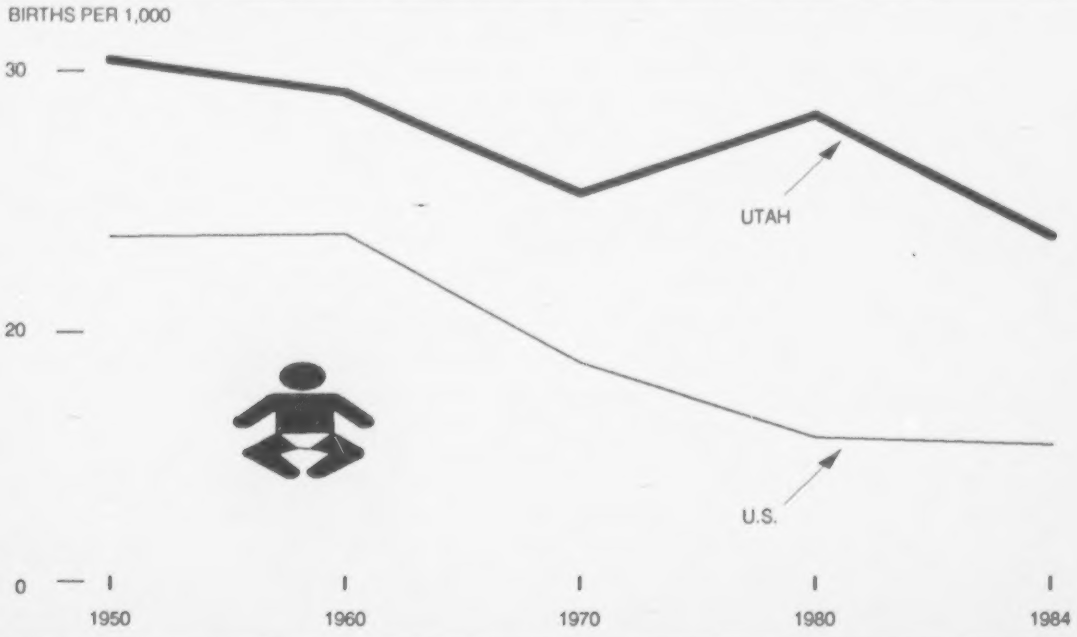
"Total fertility" – a measure of average births per women – is just one more indicative measure. The Utah Office of Planning and Budget estimates that Utah's total fertility figure registered 0.8 births higher than the national average in 1986. However, according to this measure, Utah's rate has declined steadily during the 1980s, while the national rate has held almost steady at 1.8 births per woman.

BABY BOOMERS

Another effect of the baby boom becomes clear from the number of children born to women in the 35-44 year-old category. By this

UTAH'S BIRTH RATE OUTPACES THE NATION'S

Chart 4. Utah and United States Birth Rate, 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980, 1984



age, virtually all American women have completed their childbearing. In 1950, this group of Utah women had produced about 2.9 children a piece; by 1980, they had birthed 3.5 offspring per woman. Females in this age classification during the year 1980 mothered most of the baby boom generation. On the other hand, women in their 20s exhibited declining fertility rates—the baby bust. In other words, the large families of baby boomer moms have offset declining fertility for younger women—resulting in what appears to be only a slight decline in the number of "children ever born" between the 1950 and 1980 censuses.

However, while fertility rates for women in their 20s are falling, childbearing among certain groups of teenagers and among women over 30 has soared. Some researchers theorize the lower fertility of young women could be due to timing[4]—perhaps employed females delay childbearing in order to establish themselves at work or to accumulate assets before starting a family.

A STRONG INFLUENCE

Many of Utah's atypical demographic statistics—higher birth rates, larger families, more and younger marriages—appear to reflect the influence of Utah's dominant religion. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (the "Mormons") espouses a family-oriented doctrine. Approximately 70 percent of Utah's population is LDS. The LDS Church entreats members to bring more children into the world and holds marriage as an important part of Mormon "salvation." This cultural bias and influence appears the main reason Utah experiences marriage/family demographics so different from the rest of the country. These statistical differences also appear to account for some of the variation in labor force figures discussed in the remainder of this report.

FERTILITY—Working Women and Their Children

So what does all this interesting information have to do with women in the labor force? What are some of the relationships between fertility and labor force participation?

The fewer children a woman has, the more likely she works outside the home. This correlation consistently appears in studies on fertility and work force participation. In 1980, employed women nationwide, aged 18-34, averaged 0.8 children, while women the same age who were not in the labor force had 1.7

children. In fact, one study implies the birth rate among working women measures only one third that of those not in the labor force.[5] This lower birth rate may be directly related to what women perceive as their primary role – career woman or mother.

AN INVERTED RELATIONSHIP

There appears little doubt fertility and labor force participation are inversely related, but a big question remains. Do women restrict their families because they want to work or do they work because they have small families? A raging controversy reigns over this question among researchers. Some studies show working women want fewer children and women who plan to be in the paid labor force have smaller family expectations.[6] Other research indicates the number and age of a woman's children help to explain whether she works outside the home.[7]

Even models which allow reciprocal causation between fertility and labor force variables seem unable to settle the dispute.[8] Some economic theorists (including Jacob Mincer and Richard Easterlin) suggest fertility and wives' work don't affect each other, but both factors react to changes in other elements such as the husband's income.[9] No matter what causal relationships exist, the declining birth rate intimates women are more likely to move into the paid work force.

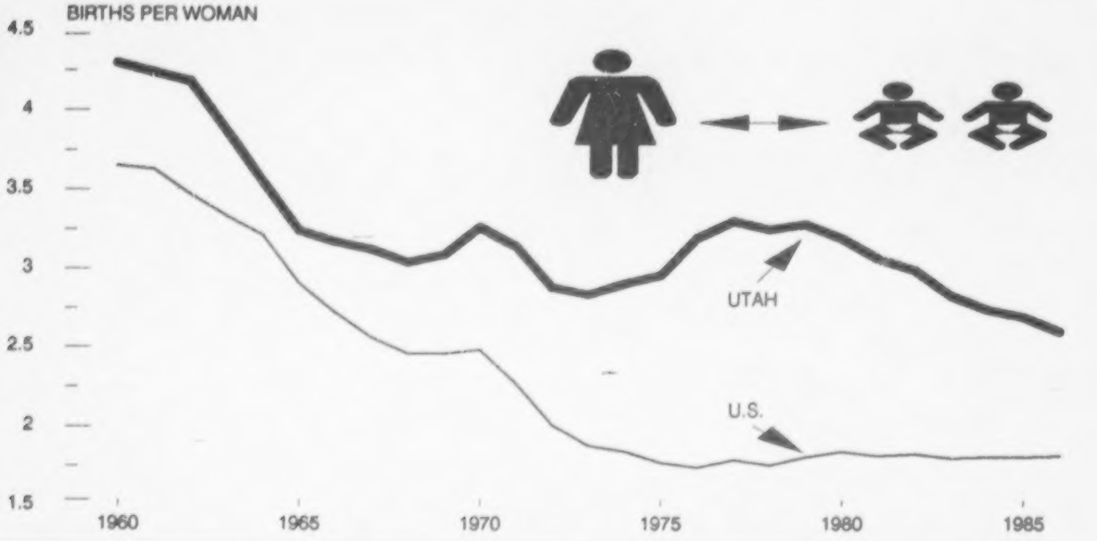
Women who have or expect to have children tend to earn less than childless women.[10] Moreover, because skill requirements and their upkeep have become so important in today's economy, the salary cost of having children keeps rising, particularly if a women establishes her career before children are born. A corollary of this relationship exists – women with the highest family income have the fewest children, while women with extremely low family incomes display the highest fertility rates.[11]

MORE. . .

The higher a woman's educational attainment, the fewer births she has or expects to have.[12] One study suggests that the more education a woman has, the older she will be when her first child is born. Researchers have shown that educational level ranks as the most important variable affecting the age at which a woman begins childbearing.[13] This relationship can work conversely, too. The longer a woman puts off having that first baby, the

FERTILITY RATES ARE FALLING

Chart 5. Utah and U.S. Fertility Rates, 1960-1986



longer she has to complete her education; and the more education a woman has, the better prepared she emerges to take a spot in the job market.

Research by economist Susan Ross suggests college-educated women have children sooner after leaving school than those with less education, but they spaced their children closer together, perhaps with an eye to returning to work quickly.[14]

The closer a wife's earnings are to her husband's, the more likely she is to delay having children.[15] The more a woman contributes to her marriage's total income, the more difficult it becomes to forgo that income when a child is born (if she decides to restrict her labor force participation). This relationship also connects to the above-stated premise in that women with higher incomes tend to be better educated. In addition, women in professional or managerial occupations (with high earnings) are most likely to put off having a family.[16]

Women who postpone childbirth display a solid attachment to the labor force both before and after their first child is born.[17] Women

WOMEN AVERAGE LESS HIGHER EDUCATION

Table 5. Utah and United States Percentage of High School and College Graduates Persons 25 Years and Older, 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980

	1950	1960	1970	1980	Change 1950-1980
UTAH					
Completed High School	49.9	55.8	67.3	80.0	30.1
Female	51.5	56.8	67.3	79.1	27.6
Male	48.3	54.9	67.2	81.0	32.7
Completed 4 or More Years College	7.8	10.2	14.0	19.9	12.1
Female	6.0	7.1	9.6	14.5	8.5
Male	9.5	13.4	18.6	25.5	16.0
U.S.					
Completed High School	33.4	41.1	52.3	66.5	33.1
Female	35.1	42.5	52.8	65.8	30.7
Male	31.5	39.5	48.4	67.3	35.8
Completed 4 or More Years College	6.0	7.7	10.7	16.2	10.2
Female	5.0	5.8	8.1	12.8	7.8
Male	7.1	9.7	13.5	20.1	13.0

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

who delay having children show a strong bond to employment suggesting their work histories will become comparable to men's. This may lead to a decline in some of the differences (such as in earnings) found between sexes on the job.

EDUCATION — Reading and Writing, But What About Arithmetic?

Utahns have always shown a high regard for education, and the population in Utah has always been significantly better schooled than the rest of the nation. For example, in 1980, almost one-fifth of the Utah population over the age of 25 had completed four or more years of college compared with only 16 percent nationwide. More than 14 percent of the women in the State had college degrees compared with about 13 percent in the country as a whole. However, Utah women generally don't complete as much schooling as Utah men.

Females typically marry younger than men. Moreover, society stresses higher education for men more than for women. In the past, a greater percentage of females finished high school than did men, but even that correlation has been changing. Although in the 14 to 19 year-old category women out-distanced men in high school graduation, in the 25 years and older group, males out-distanced females – according to the 1980 Census.

Someone said that Joe College is growing old – and that he's become a she. The Census Bureau reported women contributed more than three-fourths of the total college enrollment growth between 1972 and 1981. For the United States, this may be true – during Fall Quarter 1982, more than half of the college students in the country were women. But not so in Utah – in this state, during the same time period, only 43 percent of those enrolled in institutions of higher learning were female. This puts Utah below the other 49 states and the District of Columbia. In other words, Utah hit the bottom of the list – based on the criteria of percent of female enrollees. If this trend continues, Utah may lose its grip on high female educational attainment.

BACK TO SCHOOL

Let's look at college enrollment more closely. Using data from the 1980 Census, it appears that Utah women made up the majority of college students under the age of 20 and over the age of 35. They made up fewer than one-third of graduate students, but were more likely than men to go back to finish school later. In fact, as of 1980, 14 percent of women college students had passed their thirty-fifth birthday.

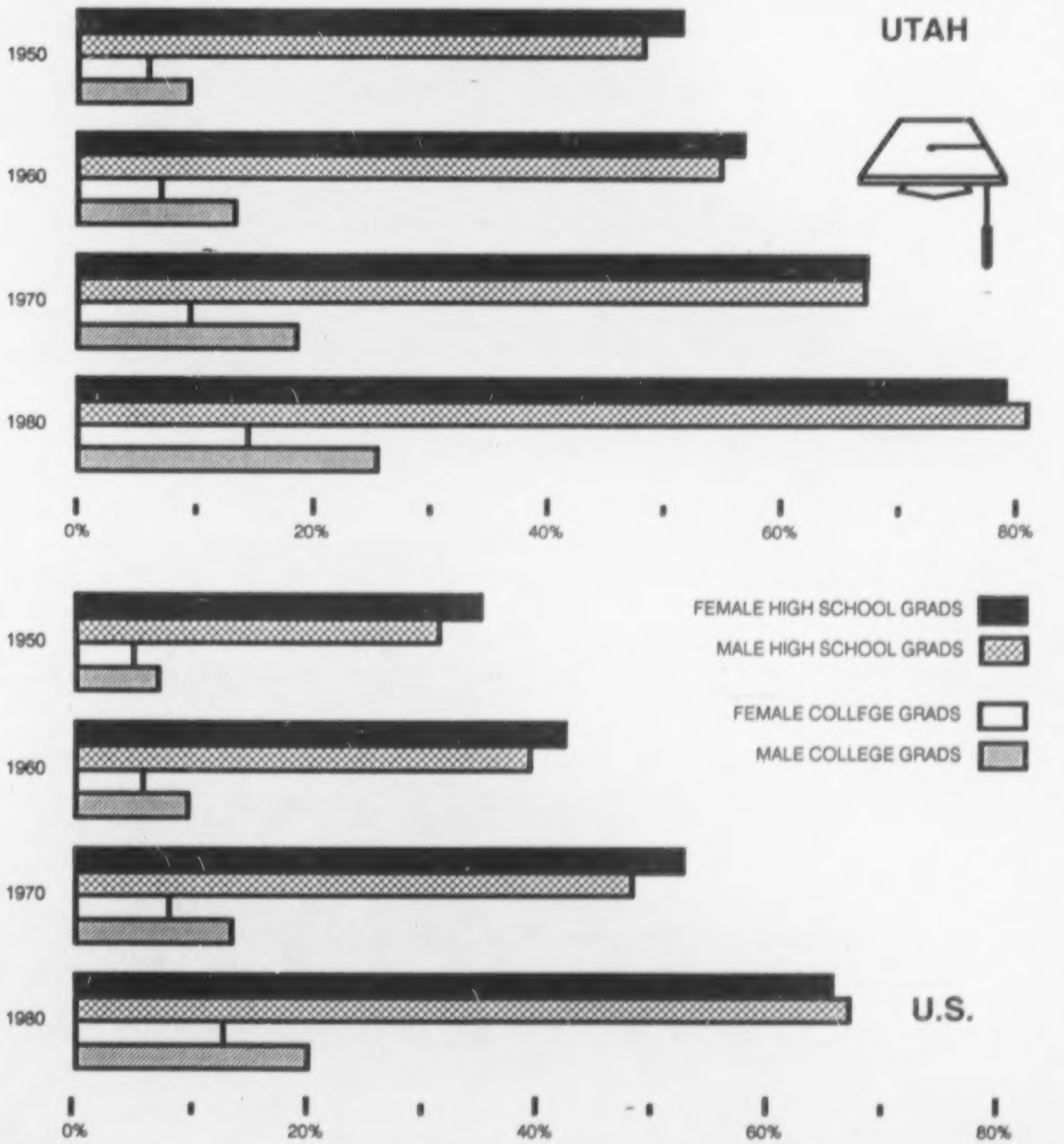
Some research on national patterns suggests the aging of recent cohorts of men and women with similar post-secondary educational attainment should eventually result in little or no difference in the percentage of male and female college graduates.[18]

However, although women (at least nationwide) are closing the degree gap, they still tend to major in education, the humanities, and health sciences – in 1977, 15 percent of all bachelor's degrees awarded to Utah women were in home economics – degrees which don't usually lead to jobs in high-paying occupations.

On the other hand, data collected by the National Center for Education Statistics on U.S. degrees showed in 1980 women earned a fifth of all law degrees (up from 5 percent in 1970) and

UTAHNS AVERAGE MORE EDUCATION THAN AMERICANS GENERALLY

Chart 6. Utah and U.S. Population, 25 and Older with Four or More Years of High School or College



nearly a fifth of all medical degrees (doubling the 1970 rate). Moreover, almost half of the master's degrees awarded in 1980 went to women.[19]

THE MARRIAGE CONNECTION

In one study, Alexander and Reilly found early marriage is not as large a deterrent to post-marriage education enrollment as generally believed. Nevertheless, it poses a much greater restraint on women's educational attainment than on men's. Alexander and Reilly believe as much as three-fourths of the post-marriage educational gap might close if women delayed marriage as long as men.[20]

Better pay is one of the work force benefits of a higher education (a subject covered more extensively in Chapter 4). According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), college graduates also receive the benefits of a markedly lower unemployment rate and a larger share of managerial and professional jobs. BLS also found the higher a woman's educational level, the more likely she is to participate in the labor force.

For example, in 1984, the participation rate for women with college degrees registered at 78 percent. In other words, almost four-fifths of women with at least four years of college were working or looking for work. On the other hand, only 38 percent of the women with eight or fewer years education surfaced as labor force participants.

SUMMING THINGS UP — A Final Word

Utah has become a state dominated (at least by population standards) by women. After the age of 15, women outnumber men in every major age grouping and their dominance increases with maturity. Youth also prevail in the State of Utah. One-third of her population was under the age of 16 at the time of the 1980 Census — making the Beehive State the youngest in the nation. Even though Utah's birth rate has declined, Utah families remain larger than the national average. And, although divorce is more common, Utahns are more likely to be married than are Americans (due to high remarriage rates). All these facts contribute to work force experience for Utah women that may differ significantly from their sisters nationwide — since single women are more likely to work and labor force participation for married women varies inversely with the number of children she has.

CHAPTER 2
LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

"Woman has always had one opportunity – the opportunity to work; this one thing has never been denied her. Man has never considered that she was out of her sphere when she toiled in the fields and factories; he has never criticized her for leaving her home for any kind of drudgery. But when she began to enter the professional field and when she began to compete with men in the great work of the world, she was reminded that she was going out of her own sphere and was neglecting her home."

Annie Wells Cannon
Member of the Utah State Legislature, 1913

CHAPTER 2

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

Utah Women at Work

They're here! In 1987, almost 60 percent of Utah's adult age women were working or were actively looking for a job. In the past couple of years, women have invaded the labor force. Haven't they? Before about 1975, few women worked outside the home, except of course during World War II. The rise in female labor force participation has been parabolic—rising out of obscurity to great heights in only a brief period of time. Is that what you think? If so, think again.

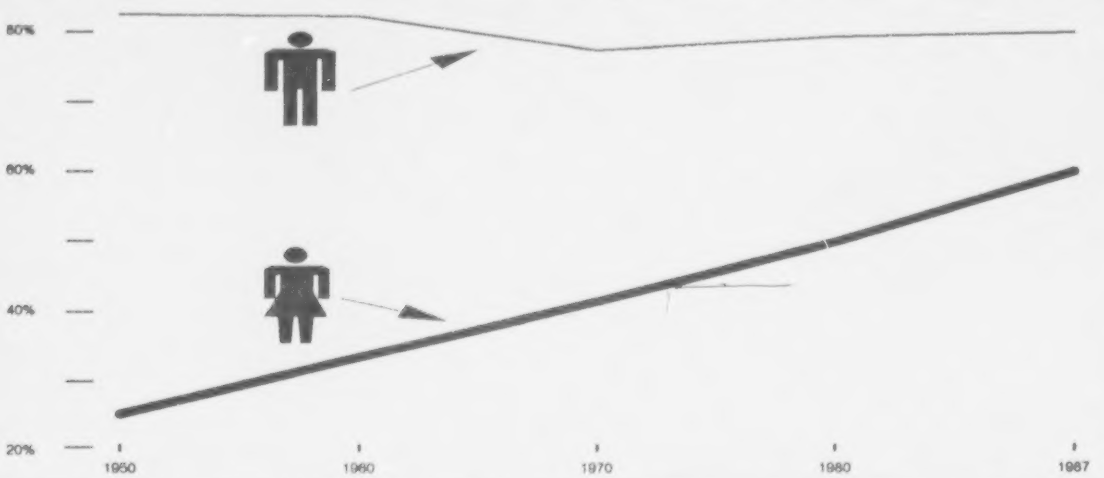
ENTERING THE LABOR FORCE—More and More

Even though record numbers of women are now employed, they have played an important (and not insignificant) part in America's paid labor force since before the turn of the century. In 1890, when the federal government first started keeping statistics on female employment, 18 percent of U.S. working age women (at that time, those 14 years and older) were employed or looking for work. From then on, female participation rates grew at a steady speed (except for the swell experienced during World War II).

Since the post-war years, women's participation rates have increased about eight percentage points every decade--hardly a meteoric rise. (A participation rate, by the way, is the portion of the working age population working or looking for work—see the Appendix for a specific definition.) The Department of Labor estimates 56 percent of the female civilian noninstitutional population maintained a place in the United States' civilian labor force during 1987. So why all the fuss? Why is it that everywhere you

UTAH WOMEN CONTINUE TO JOIN THE LABOR FORCE

Chart 1. Utah Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate by Sex, 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987



turn you find literature (a myriad of articles exist) about women at work? It's not like half the female population suddenly decided to flood the employment scene overnight! The process has been gradual.

A CRITICAL MASS

Dr. Carolyn Shaw Bell of Wellesley College calls it a "critical mass" condition. Why all the keen interest? Women now saturate the labor market to such a degree that the nation is finally paying attention to their presence.[1] On the other hand, even though the mecca of women to the workplace has been relatively constant, it seems the influx of women into the labor force has been a source of interest to analysts for quite some time.

An old copy of Utah Employment Security Digest, issued April 10, 1943, devoted itself entirely to the increase in women's employment. The headline read, "33,500 Women Employed in Private Industry in Utah--Study shows Percentage of Female Workers Increases."[2] The articles, charts, and graphs which followed revealed the how and why of it all. In addition, the Department of Labor's 1956 Handbook on Women Workers reads:

> *There are more women workers today than ever before...never before have so many women been both homemakers and wage earners...Among employed women the range of jobs held is wider than in any earlier period...Earnings of women workers have advanced as standards of living have risen, although the increase in earnings has been less rapid for women than for men.*[3]

Although written thirty years ago, these words apply perfectly to circumstances today. But exactly how has the employment picture for Utah women changed? Has it really changed at all? The cold, hard statistics for the Beehive State follow.

PARTICIPATION RATES — Joining the Crowd

The Census for 1950 indicated that 25 percent of Utah's working-age women had joined the labor force. Notice, this rate falls significantly below the national average of 30 percent for the same time period. Now, racing ahead to the present -- in 1987, the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated a 60 percent female participation rate for Utah (a figure more than double the 1950 rate). In fact, the 56 percent rate for the entire country now *lags* 4 points behind

A STEADY RISE

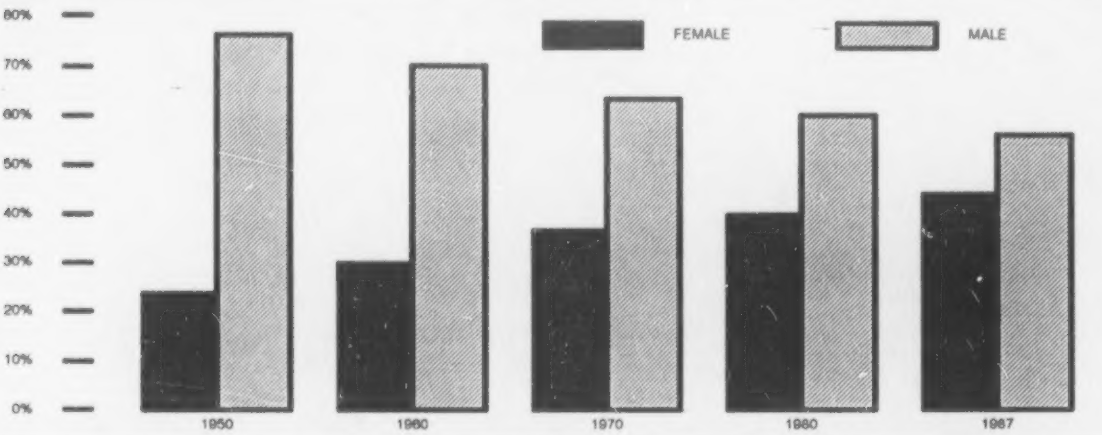
Table 6. Utah And United States Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate Persons 16 Years and Older, by Sex 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1987
UTAH	**52.5**	**57.4**	**58.9**	**64.2**	**69.7**
Female	25.3	33.5	41.5	49.8	59.9
Male	82.5	82.3	77.4	79.3	79.9
U.S.	**54.0**	**60.0**	**58.0**	**62.0**	**65.6**
Female	30.0	37.7	43.3	49.9	56.0
Male	80.0	83.3	79.7	75.1	76.2

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

UTAH WOMEN MAKE UP A LARGER SHARE OF THE LABOR MARKET TODAY

Chart 2. Utah Civilian Labor Force Share by Sex, 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987



Utah's ratio. Obviously, even though Utah women may have initially lingered behind the rest of the nation in terms of labor force participation, they have now caught up.

Between 1950 and 1980, women's labor force participation rose a steady 8 points a decade. However, since the beginning of this decade, female participation in Utah has soared, climbing 10 percentage points in only seven years. Utah's higher female participation rate reflects its youthful population (younger women are more likely to work). In addition, Utah's teenage women participate in the labor force at a rate 16 points higher than the national average.

On the other hand, while Utah women's rates have been climbing, male participation rates have moved down slightly (although Utah male rates still register above national figures). The drop in men's work force participation has come about primarily as a result of earlier retirement.

THE MALE/FEMALE SPLIT

In 1950, the variance between male and female participation rates gaped by 57 percentage points. This span had narrowed to 30 points by 1980 – almost half the 1950 difference. In 1987, the participation gap measured only 20 points. In fact, women have accounted for almost the entire increase in Utah's participation rate during the last 30 years as male participation dropped. U.S. figures followed the same pattern – although the difference between the sexes' participation started out narrower and did not close as much in the same amount of time as did Utah's.

By looking at data for Census years 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980, several trends in labor activity for different age groups can be perceived. In Utah, female participation rates increased across the board. The largest gains occurred for Utah women in the 25 to 34 and 35 to 44 year-old age groupings (typically the "young mother" years) – rates for both these age groups grew by over 31 percentage points between 1950 and 1980.

Women over 65 experienced the least increase in work force participation (and remain the least likely of all age groups to work). Nevertheless, compared with the 23.3 point drop in the comparable male rate, the fact women in this age group increased their labor force participation at all over the past 30 years is significant.

THE LAST SEVEN YEARS

Annual average estimates from the Current Population Survey (CPS) provide an idea of trends in labor force participation during

UTAH WOMEN ARE INCREASING THEIR SHARE OF THE LABOR FORCE

Table 7. Utah and United States Civilian Labor Force Percent Distribution By Sex, 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1987
UTAH					
Female	23.6	29.8	36.5	39.8	44.0
Male	76.4	70.2	63.5	60.2	56.0
UNITED STATES					
Female	28.2	32.9	38.1	42.6	44.8
Male	71.8	67.1	61.9	57.4	56.2

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

the past seven years. Not surprisingly, Utah women have continued to participate in the labor force in increasing proportions. After all, it is hardly probable that women would abruptly cease their exodus to the work place.

Now, women in the 20 to 24 year-old age group are most likely paid employees. These women show a participation rate of 78 percent – more than three-fourths of the female population in their early 20s have a job or are looking for work! Remember, too, school enrollees make up a significant number of women in this age group. Since a high proportion of these women are single, and unmarrieds have a greater likelihood of joining the work force, their high participation rate shouldn't come as a total shock.

For men, on the other hand, peak labor force participation occurs in the 35 to 44 year-old bracket (98 percent were in the labor force during 1987). Participation rates between the sexes most closely approximate each other for teenagers. Girls 16 to 19 years-old registered a 68 percent rate, boys 70 percent.

WIVES AND MOTHERS – In and Out of the Home

Single women are more likely to participate in the labor force, but how exactly do rates vary between the other marital statuses? Every economist's good statistical source, the United States Census, provides a good idea of how many wives and mothers work. During 1960, 29 percent of Utah's married women (with husbands present) belonged to the work force. By 1980, the participation rate for married women had risen 16 percentage points to 45 percent. Annual average estimates from the Current Population Survey suggest that in 1987, over half of the married women (58 percent) in the State have a job or are looking for one. Married women have been in the vanguard of the female rush to the work place. Single (never-married) females in 1987 took part in the labor force at a rate of 72 percent.

In the past, mothers generally opted to stay home with their young children. However, this trend has been changing. In fact, critics of the influx of women into the work force level their disparagement at mothers who work. The 1960 Census reveals that only 18 percent of wives with children under six years of age held paid positions or were looking for such at the time. By 1980, the portion of preschooler mothers in the labor force had almost doubled – more than one-third of these mothers were participants.

BACK TO WORK

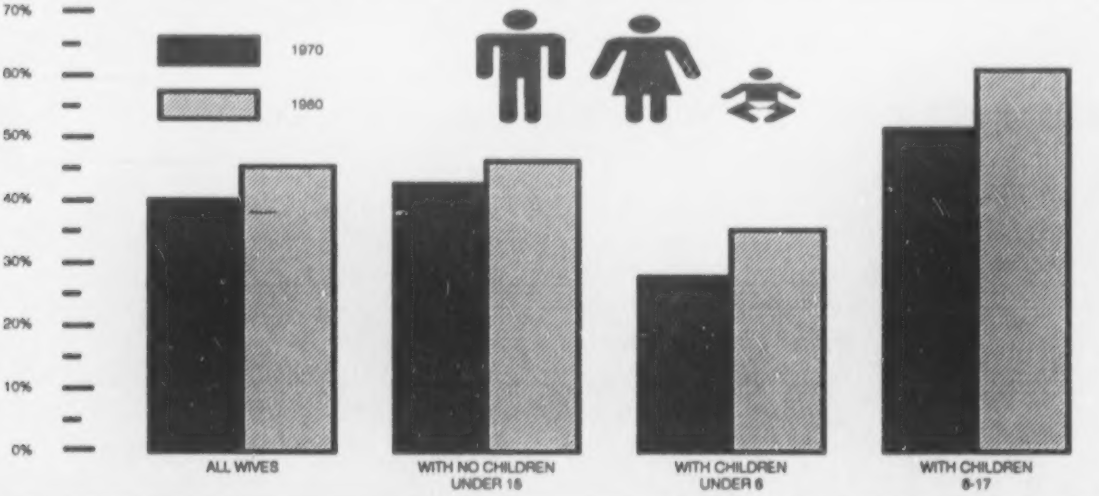
More and more women are also returning to work after childbirth. A recent Census survey reports that many women are returning to work after the birth of a child. Nearly half (48 percent) of the 3.5 million women who gave birth during the 12 months prior to June 1985 participated in the labor force. These proportions registered only 38 percent in 1980 and 31 percent in 1976. In addition, recent mothers with college degrees were twice as likely to return to working status as those with high school diplomas[4]

HOMEBODIES

However, Utah moms are still much more likely to stay at home while their children are young. U.S. figures for 1980 show that more than 45 percent of American mothers with youngsters under six had joined the labor force. However, given changes in participation since 1980, an estimated 50 percent of mothers of Utah preschool children work outside the home. In addition, Utah women with young children, but no husband (in the home),

WIVES WITH PRESCHOOL CHILDREN ARE LEAST LIKELY TO WORK

Chart 3. Utah 1980 Civilian Labor Force Participation of Wives, by Age of Children



MARRIAGE AND THE WORKING WOMAN

Table 8. Utah Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate By Sex and Marital Status, 1987 Annual Average

	TOTAL	MARRIED SPOUSE PRESENT	SINGLE NEVER MARRIED	OTHER MARITAL STATUS
TOTAL	**67.9**	**69.8**	**75.8**	**60.4**
Female	59.9	57.6	72.3	55.4
Male	79.9	81.7	78.7	70.4

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

participated in greater proportions than did women nationally during 1980.

Utah mothers with children between 6 and 17 years (only), took part in the labor force at levels almost 20 percentage points above mothers with preschoolers. In fact, mothers of children this age with no husband in the home proved to have the highest participation rates of all—84.5 percent were employed or looking for employment in 1980.

Recent data on the labor force status of Utah mothers are not available. However, the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that, nationally, 57 percent of the mothers of preschool children and 72 percent of the mothers of school-age children were in the work force in 1987. Of all the children under 18 in 1985, well over half had a mother in the labor force. Of these, more than 9 million children were under age 6 and 14.7 million were aged 6-13.

THE FEMALE LABOR FORCE—Swelling the Ranks

Employment participation for women is rising, but how large a part do females play in the total labor force? Roughly 333,000 women belonged to Utah's work force in 1987—44 percent of the total. Although Utah women show a higher participation rate than U.S. women generally, American women made up a larger portion of the labor force itself—45 percent. Back in 1950, women made up not quite a fourth of Utah's civilian labor force. U.S. women held an even larger share—they made up 28 percent of the American work force.

As more and more women have entered the field of paid employment, raising their participation rates, they also made up a larger and larger portion of the labor force itself. This relationship appears only reasonable, particularly as men began to retire earlier. When the 1980 Census was taken, the female share of Utah's work force had swelled to almost 40 percent. Women, countrywide, had an even larger share of the employment pie – they accounted for more than 42 percent of the work force.

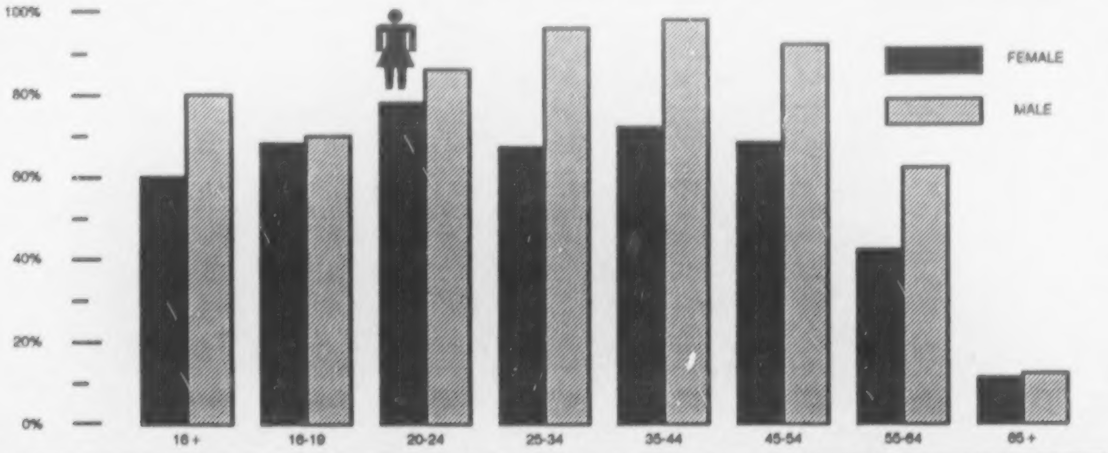
Between 1950 and 1987, Utah's labor force tripled in size, reaching 757,000 participants. Female entrants accounted for just about half of this increase. While this may sound impressive, during the same time period, the total U.S. labor force also tripled; but women accounted for approximately 64 percent of the growth.

THE AGE FACTOR

How is the labor force distributed by age? Females 20-24 years old maintained the highest ratio of 1987 workers (49.5 percent). Teenage women followed closely – making up 49.3 percent of total 16-19 year-old workers. Interestingly, women in the 45-54 year-old category account for the smallest share of their age

UTAH WOMEN BETWEEN 20 AND 24 YEARS OLD ARE MOST LIKELY TO WORK

Chart 4. Utah Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate by Sex, 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1987



bracket's labor force. This fact holds true although men have been retiring earlier. Younger women appear more apt to work (probably because of the recent changes in society's view of working women) than are older women—even though their families are probably raised.

MARRIAGE AND THE WORKING WOMAN

Current Population Survey estimates for 1987 suggest married women (with husbands present) make up most of the female labor force, 60 percent to be exact. Never-marrieds, with a 22 percent share, rank as the next largest group of workers. It just so happens that the labor force distribution between marital statuses is almost the same as the distribution of the population.

Since many married women work, it is not surprising to find, in 1979, (based on Census figures) both partners worked in 52.2 percent of all Utah's married couple families. Nationwide, the fraction of couples where both worked was lower—only 50.8 percent. However, Utah women were more likely to work part-time while their husbands worked full-time (almost 20 percent of married-couple families, compared with about 15 percent for the nation).

Also, Utah wives showed a greater tendency to have remained at home, if their husbands worked, than did wives nationwide. In 1979, 36 percent of Utah married-couple families were made up of a husband who worked and a wife who did not. In the United States, only 33 percent of husband-wife families exhibited the same employment status.

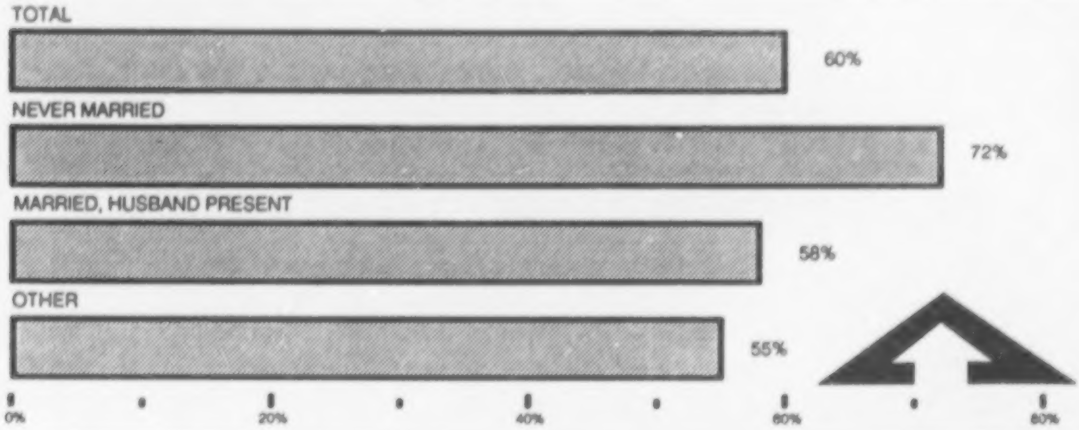
UNEMPLOYMENT—A Dubious Honor

Historically, female unemployment rates have exceeded male unemployment rates. As a matter of fact, one could almost say that women's rates have always, in depression and boom, surpassed male rates and not be very far wrong—well at least until the most recent recession.

What about Utah's average annual unemployment rates for the recession years of 1982 and 1983? In 1982, female unemployment registered 7.6 percent compared to 7.9 percent of the men. In 1983, the gap got even wider; women had an unemployment rate 8.9 percent compared to the men's rate of 9.4 percent.

NEVER MARRIED FEMALES ARE MOST LIKELY TO WORK OR BE LOOKING FOR WORK

Chart 5. Utah Female Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate by Marital Status
1987 Annual Average



By 1984, the pattern had reverted to its original trend – women's unemployment was a full percentage point higher than men's. The trend continued through 1987 when Utah women exhibited an unemployment rate of 6.5 compared to the male rate of 6.3 percent.

THE RECESSION ANOMALY

Why the anomaly during the last recession? A later chapter discusses the distribution of women's employment by industry; but for now, please note, women tend to work in service industries as opposed to goods-producing industries (manufacturing, mining, or construction) where most workers are men. The sectors hardest hit by the recent recession were not services oriented but construction and heavy industry.

The shift in the male/female unemployment rates occurred as these industries laid-off men, while women remained in their service-related jobs. Moreover, occupational patterns have a bearing on unemployment conditions. Women tend to concentrate in clerical and service occupations – those jobs least affected by hard times regardless of industry.

BY AGE, TOO

Unemployment varies not only by sex but for different age groups, too. Women tend to show the lowest unemployment rates in the 20 to 24 year-old classification, while men tend to experience the least joblessness between the ages of 35 to 44. Notice these ages represent the group where women and men also display their highest respective participation rates.

Single women generally exhibit the highest unemployment of any marital status group. Those in the age group with the highest unemployment (teenagers) are usually unmarried. Married women are least likely of any in the female labor force to be unemployed.

IT'S DISCOURAGING

Just as women generally experience higher unemployment rates, they also make up a larger portion of the "discouraged worker" group. Discouraged workers want a job but are not looking for one (labor force statistics don't count them). They fail to make a work search because they feel they will not be able to find work.

Generally, women in the U.S. make up three-fifths of the individuals in this category. Most women say job market factors rather than personal factors (age, education, or handicap) keep them from getting a job. However, a substantial number of women also experience difficulties because they have little job experience, limited schooling, few skills, and, in general, are inadequately prepared for the job market.

HOURS AND PATTERNS – Working Nine to Five

Even though the gap between male and female participation in the labor force may be narrowing, the work patterns of women and men still differ significantly. For one thing, women are much more likely to work part-time than men. And, a higher portion of Utah women work part-time than do women the country over. In 1987, 35 percent of Utah's female labor force worked part-time or were only looking for part-time work – only 12 percent of Utah's men were in the same category. Nationwide, 26 percent of the female work force and 10 percent of the male work force fell in the part-time group.

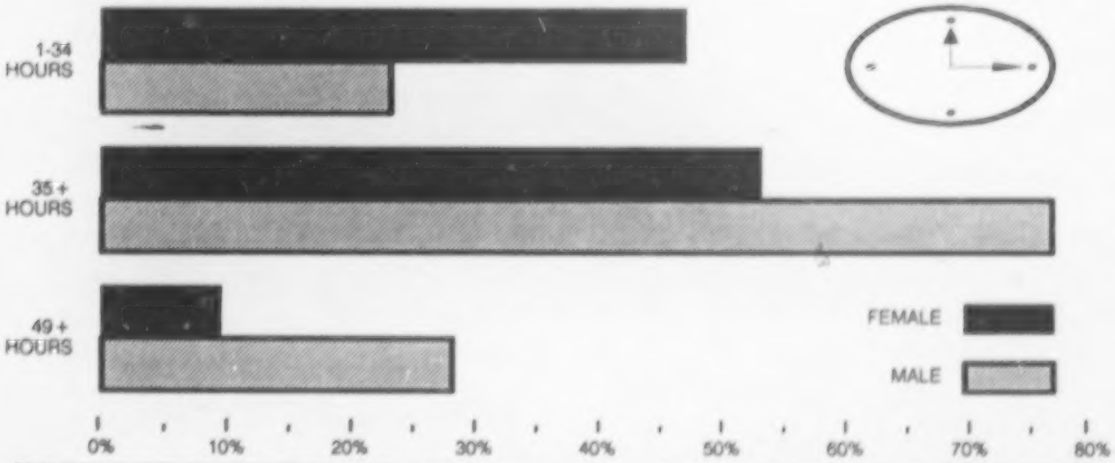
Given these male/female ratios, it is not surprising that women make up the largest share of the part-time labor force. In both the Utah and in the U.S., women account for over two-thirds of those working less than full-time. In addition, while women usually register the highest general unemployment rates, their part-time jobless rates usually fall short of those of their male counterparts.

A SHORTER WORK WEEK

Not only do women make up a disproportionate share of part-time workers, but when they work full-time schedules they lean towards a shorter work week than men. Current Population Survey figures for 1987 show that while the full-time female work week in Utah averaged a little over 43 hours, Utah men worked about 48 hours per week – a difference of approximately 5 hours. Men, also, display a greater tendency to work over-time than women. In 1987, 28 percent of the Utah male work force labored more than 49 hours per week compared with a little under 10 percent of women.

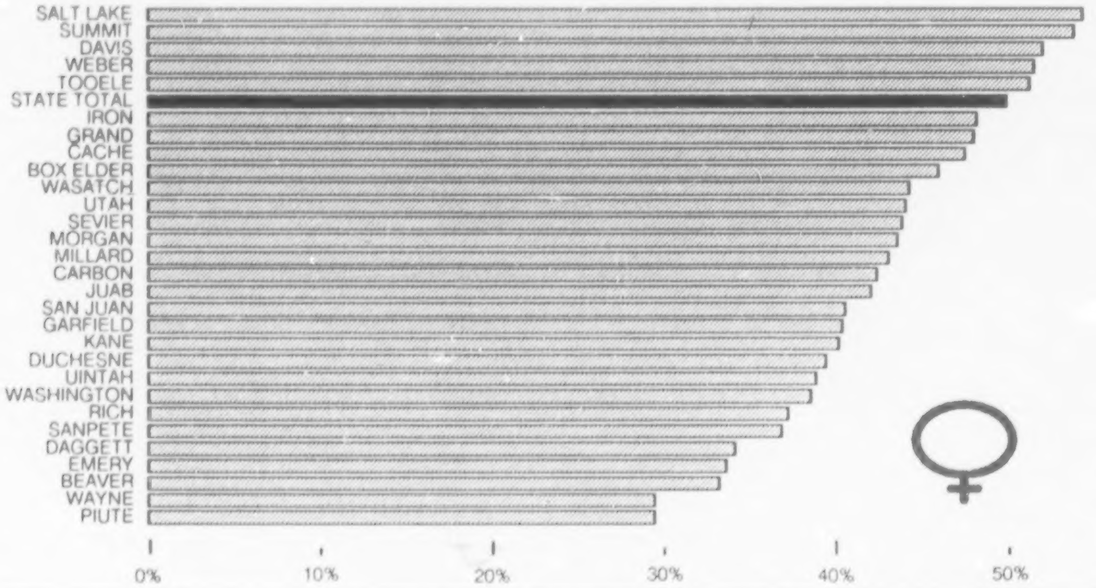
MORE UTAH WOMEN WORK PART-TIME THAN UTAH MEN

Chart 6. Utah Hours Worked by Sex, 1987 Annual Average



UTAH WOMEN IN URBAN AREAS ARE MOST LIKELY TO WORK OUTSIDE THE HOME

Chart 7. Utah 1980 Civilian Labor Force Female Participation Rate by County



WHY?

Why are women less likely to work full-time, or when they do work full-time, to put in fewer hours of over-time than men? One explanation suggests that women shoulder more of the burden for children/home and put in less time at work in order to manage these responsibilities. Also, married women may spend less time in the workplace, because they may not be the primary wage earner and can work less. In addition, the male/female mix between industries and occupations may account for some of the differences. Men are concentrated in industries and occupations more likely to offer over-time.

HOPEFULLY DEVOTED

Women generally work fewer hours than men. Are they less devoted to the labor force? In the past, many thought (and some still do) that women were "secondary" workers with only a marginal attachment to the job market. However, recent research suggests women divide into two groups – "workers" and "nonworkers" with the former always in the labor force and the latter always out.[5] The central finding of another study pointed out: "substantial proportions of women with children both in and outside of marriage, plan lifelong commitments to their jobs, every bit as strong as the work commitments shown for men."[6]

The longer women work, the more their life (social and economic) depends on their job and the harder it is for them to forgo employment. These costs tend to keep women at their jobs. A recent SPIEGEL, Inc. survey indicated than about 70 percent of the Salt Lake female participants considered their work a career rather than just a job.[7] Nevertheless, a number of women do fit the "old view," often dropping in and out of the job market.

MORE AND MORE TIME ON THE JOB

Women's attachment to the job market manifests itself in a longer worklife. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates the number of years a 20 year-old woman could expect to spend in the work force nearly doubled between 1950 and 1977 (the most recent projection available). The average 20 year-old woman back in 1950 could expect to work about 14.5 years. However, the average 20 year-old in 1977 could anticipate spending 26 years as a member of the paid labor force. This means female gains in worklife outdistanced gains in life expectancy by about 2 to 1. However, during the same time period, worklife expectancy for men declined, largely as a result of early retirement.[8]

DIVERGING GENERATIONS

Although women work greater and greater portions of their lives, data from the Current Population Survey suggest that as of January 1983, U.S. working women had only been with the same employer a median of 3.3 years. Men, on the other hand, had worked for the same employer median of 5.1 years – almost 2 years longer than women. However, in the younger age groups (under 30 years) little or no difference existed in the length of tenure for men and women. After that age, the gap widened. The widest deviation in tenure for the sexes (almost seven years) came in the 50-64 year-old interval.

The difference in younger and older women's employer tenure seems to be a reflection of divergent generational work patterns. Women in the oldest age groups usually made full-time homemaking a career during the bulk of their lives. Younger women, on the other hand, will likely marry later, delay childbirth, combine homemaking with an outside career, and attach themselves more firmly to a particular job and employer.

HER OWN BOSS

U.S. women constitute only 30 percent of the total self-employed, but the number of self-employed women (classified according to their primary job) has increased five times faster than the number of self-employed men and more than three times as fast as women who receive wages and salaries.

In addition, the Census Bureau estimates that women own nearly one-fourth of the nation's businesses with less than 25 shareholders (although their companies generate only one-tenth of all receipts). In 1986, Utah women owned a total of 21,900 businesses .

WHY THE INFLUX?

We know women are joining the ranks of the employed in ever increasing numbers. But why? What has brought about this ever expanding female labor force?

For increasing numbers of women, work force participation has become an economic necessity. Nancy Barrett has pointed out:

> *Of the nearly 37 million women in the labor force in 1975, 8.5 million were single (never married); 6.9 million were widowed, divorced, or separated; and 9.5 million were married to husbands who earned less than $10,000 per year. (The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates it took $9,838 for a family of four to maintain a low standard of living in 1975.) These figures total 24.9 million women—68 percent of the female labor force—who are clearly working because of necessity.*[9]

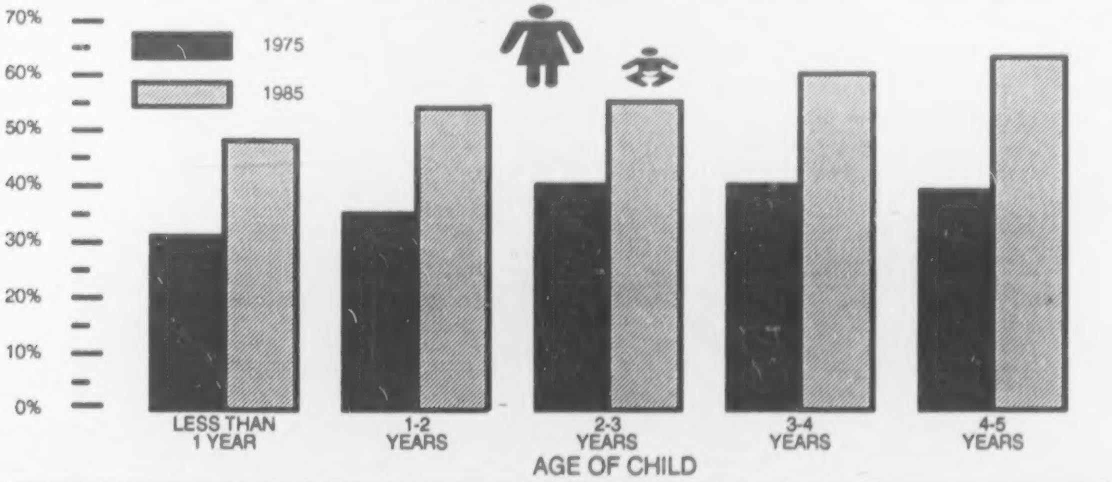
Not only are an increasing number of women compelled to work out of explicit monetary need, but many work to provide their families with a higher standard of living. A National Association of Home Builders economist has suggested that most families must have at least two incomes to afford a new house.[10] Virginia Slims American Women's Opinion Poll (conducted by the Roper Organization in 1980) further confirmed this theory. Responses from the survey evidence that 43 percent of working women work to bring in extra money and 27 percent to support themselves.[11]

In other words, increased numbers of single women in the population, just by their very existence, imply a certain amount of labor force growth. In addition, a family's economic well-being often depends on the married woman's income and relies on her wages as a major source of sustenance--particularly during times of high unemployment.

Falling fertility rates, smaller families, and delayed child birth make it easier for married women to combine a job with home responsibilities. Instead of choosing between homemaking or a career, now women choose both. Labor-saving devices and convenience foods relieve part of the burden of housework chores (although

THE OLDER THE CHILD, THE MORE LIKELY MOM WORKS OUTSIDE THE HOME

Chart 8. U.S. Civilian Labor Force Participation of Mothers, by Age of Children, 1975 and 1985



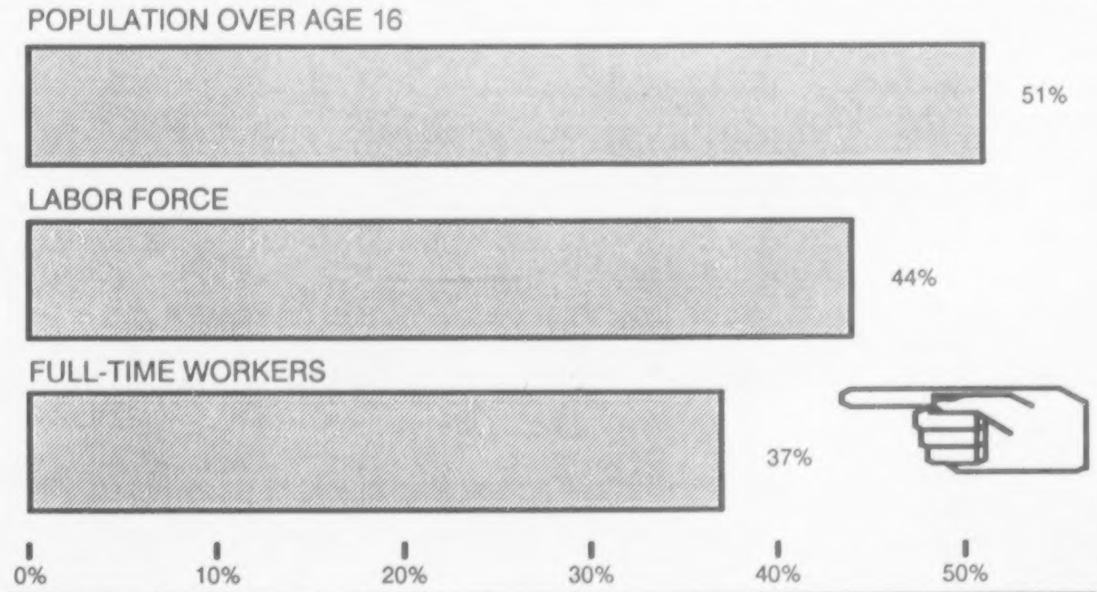
many of these items were initially marketed as a response to working women's needs).

Women are obtaining more education – providing access to more interesting and better paying jobs. The relationship between increased education and delayed marriage suggests women who postpone marriage are likely to obtain more schooling than those who marry young – and more and more women delay marriage. The additional earnings a woman receives when she has a better education also act as an incentive to keep her in the labor force. Indeed, college-educated women show the highest labor force participation rates.

Not only do women today have better access to higher paying jobs, but many women find paid employment offers them opportunities to use and develop skills and talents not necessarily needed within the home. Fourteen percent of the women in the

UTAH WOMEN PLAY AN IMPORTANT ROLE IN THE LABOR MARKET

Chart 9. Utah Women as a Percent of Population16 years and Older, Labor Force and Full-time Workers, 1987 Annual Average



Virginia Slims survey (noted above) said the primary reason they worked was to provide them with something interesting to do.[12]

Changes in social morés make employment more acceptable for certain groups of women such as young mothers. Media hype about a women's place being in the office makes labor force participation seem almost mandatory for a woman's self-fulfillment. The "Women's Lib" movement seems to have changed the way society views a woman's role, and work outside the home has now become acceptable. For the most part, women now feel greater freedom to enter the workplace.

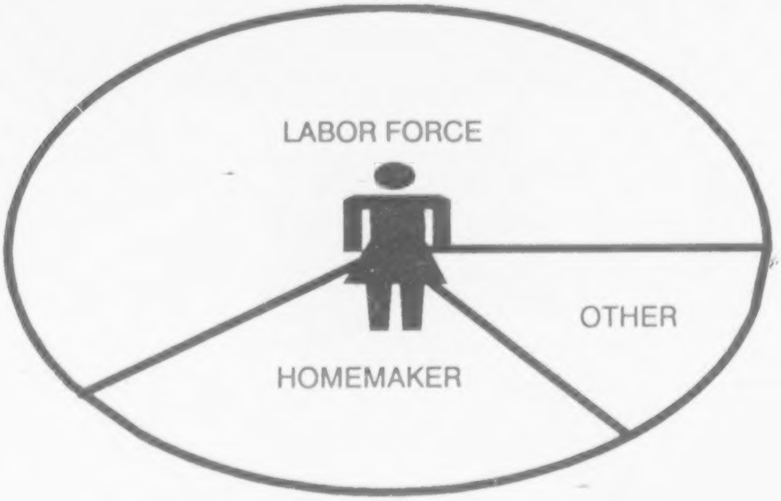
A survey conducted by Market Opinion Research suggests that even between 1975 and 1982 women's feelings about work force participation underwent a transition. In 1975, only five percent of the women questioned felt being primarily a job holder or career woman ranked as their "ideal lifestyle." By 1982, the proportion of females with this preference had risen to 12 percent. On the other hand, 20 percent of the 1982 respondents felt being a homemaker was still the best way of life for them. The ratio of women with this preference changed very little between the two survey years.

However, this particular opinion was directly linked to the woman's age. In other words, the older the woman the more likely she was to perceive homemaking as the perfect lifestyle. A little over one-fifth of the 1982 sample expressed the feeling that combining job with home responsibilities – using child care as necessary – constituted the most desired state of affairs. However, nearly half of the survey group felt the premiere lifestyle was to stay home with children when young, and to combine homemaking and a career at other life stages.[13] Clearly, more and more women see job and career as primary goals along with raising a family.

Nevertheless, this list excludes perhaps the most important reason for the influx of women into the labor force – simply, the jobs were there. In the past 30 years, tremendous growth has occurred in clerical and service jobs – positions traditionally held by women. Between 1972 and 1980 secretaries proved the biggest job gainers of all.[14] Industries such as banking, insurance, and real estate have boomed – sectors which have characteristically employed large numbers of women. Traditional "female" jobs have been ready and waiting, offering an enticement to those not already employed.

MOST NONWORKING WOMEN ARE HOMEMAKERS

Chart 10. Utah Female Labor Force Status, 1987 Annual Average



Emma Rothschild, a professor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, found 70 percent of all new private-sector jobs created between 1973 and 1980 were low-paid (mostly women's jobs) in the retail and service sectors.[15] Another reason cited for the increase has to do with automation and what some consider to be an "efficient" division of labor. Harry Braverman has advanced the theory that as automation occurs, low-paid assembly-line workers, each doing one repetitive process, replace the skilled mechanic, and so on. Braverman points out that the "dumb" jobs left after automation and a redivision of labor are many times considered "women's work."

The reorganization of work frequently occurring with automation also tends to eliminate jobs at the middle of the skill spectrum. The obliteration of this portion of jobs is often called the "disappearing middle."[16] Anna Lee Saxenian, an editorial board member of the monthly economic magazine, *Dollars and Sense*, has said, "We may be approaching a situation like that in some industrialized Third World countries where there has been a big increase in jobs for women—often more than for men—but the jobs don't lead anywhere."[17]

On the other hand, most economists project that, in this country, new jobs will require more education, not less. And, on the opposite end of the spectrum, low-skill jobs will lose their share of job market.

NONPARTICIPATION—There's No Place Like Home

With all these persuasive reasons why women should speed on down to their local Job Service Office and find a paying position, what reason do females have for not participating in the labor force? The Current Population Survey (CPS) shows that in 1985 almost 74 percent of Utah's female nonparticipants stated traditional home responsibilities kept them out of the workplace, about the same ratio as women nationwide. Only 4 percent of the male nonparticipants gave the same response. Obviously, while women have been moving out of the home and into the work force, men have not been moving into the home to take up the slack as full-time househusbands.

TAKING CARE OF BUSINESS

So, most women who don't join the labor force take care of their homes and families. What about other reasons? Roughly 7 percent of Utah females in 1987 were not in the labor force because they were still in school (compared with 21 percent of male nonparticipants). The CPS indicates 17 percent of the women surveyed gave "other reasons" for not being in the work force—most nonparticipating men fell in this category. The "other" bracket includes retirees. It seems clear why the bulk of the male nonparticipants (68%) gave this response. In other words, generally, women do not participate in the labor force because of home responsibilities, while retired men make up the largest portion on male nonparticipants.

IN CONCLUSION—The Wrap-up

Utah's women are going to work in record numbers and they make up a growing share of the State's labor force. However, this influx has been gradual with most of the increase coming from young mothers and married women. Women have been entering the job market because of economic necessity, because of a desire for fulfillment, because work outside the home is now socially acceptable, and because of job availability. Utah women generally experience higher unemployment rates, and they also account for a disproportionately large share of the State's discouraged workers. Moreover, they are more likely to work part-time than their male counterparts; but nevertheless show a strong commitment to their careers.

CHAPTER 3
OCCUPATIONS
Utah's Pink Collar Ghetto

"We have heard a good deal about the oppressed and degraded women of Utah. . . This string has been tuned and played upon until it appears to have snapped. . . They have more power and more rights than they have anywhere on this green earth. . . An incident which calls up the privileges which the women of Utah enjoy, lately occurred in Salt Lake City. Miss Phoebe Couzens, of St. Louis, and Miss Georgie Snow, daughter of the Attorney General of the Territory, were admitted to the bar in the District, and the ceremonies were imposing."

Excerpt from *The Missouri Republican*,
"The Oppressed Women of Utah," 1872

CHAPTER 3

OCCUPATIONS

Utah's Pink Collar Ghetto

You've heard their names blasting out of your TV sets – Sally Ride, first U.S. astronaut and woman in space; Geraldine Ferraro, first female national vice presidential candidate; Sandra O'Connor, first woman appointed an associate supreme court justice; Elizabeth Dole, Secretary of Labor, and so on and so on. Every day it seems more and more women pop up in nontraditional jobs – the female doctor, lawyer, flagperson, bus driver.

But to what degree, and how rapidly are women moving into those occupations traditionally dominated by men? Although women are making inroads into many of those male sanctums of employment, progress appears slow; and in actuality, the general occupational framework has changed very little. In fact, a ghetto exists in Utah, not a ghetto of race, not a ghetto of place, but a ghetto of female "pink collar" jobs where most working women congregate.

COMPARABLE REPRESENTATION

In 1987, the Current Population Survey (CPS) estimated women held about 42 percent of all Utah's managerial and professional positions. Not bad representation, as women made up about 44 percent of the employed civilians in the State. However, Utah females held only about 9 percent of precision production, crafts and repairs occupations jobs.

At the opposite end of the spectrum, 79 percent of the "administrative support" (primarily clerical) employees turned out to be women. No significant difference appears between U.S. and Utah

STILL SEGREGATED AFTER ALL THESE YEARS

Table 9. United States and Utah,Segregation of Working Women Into Female Dominated Occupations,1900-1980

Percentage of Occupation Female	CUMMULATIVE PERCENT OF WOMEN UNITED STATES 1900	1920	1940	1960	1980	UTAH 1980
90% or more	38	31	34	28	32	26
80% or more	42	42	40	42	49	51
70% or more	54	43	49	50	62	58
60% or more	56	49	61	56	65	68
50% or more	60	60	65	73	76	76

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

ratios for these occupational groupings. Please note that even using extremely broad categories, occupational segregation, or the pink collar ghetto, appears plain. However, movement is occurring. In 1980, 42 percent of all working women held administrative support or clerical jobs compared with only 28 percent in 1987.

SEGREGATION BY SEX—Women's Work

Although on the surface sexual isolation by profession is declining, Linda J. Waite points out that in some senses occupational segregation appears as widespread now as it was at the turn of the century. In 1900, 60 percent of all women workers in the United States worked in occupations where at least half of their co-workers were women. This concentration increased, so that by 1980, three-fourths of all working women were concentrated in occupations with a female majority.[1]

LIKE THEIR SISTERS

Utah women do not appear significantly different from their sisters nationwide. Comparable figures for the State display no meaningful statistical variance from national data. In 1980, over one-third of the experienced female labor force in Utah worked in only seven (retail sales, bookkeeper, cashier, secretary, food service worker, elementary school teacher and household worker) of the 514 different occupational categories designated by the Census Bureau.[2]

WHAT HAS CHANGED?

A detailed study of modifications in the occupational segregation of women employed throughout the country after World War II found segregation increased slightly between 1950 and 1960, but declined by a small amount in the following decade. This research project reported the increase in the 50s resulted from the rapid growth in "female" clerical and service occupations and the decrease in the 60s came about as men and women moved into occupations dominated by the opposite sex.

However, in the two decades studied, more men moved into traditional "women's jobs" than vice versa. University of Illinois labor economists, Francine Blau and Wallace Hendricks concluded that if new employees were assigned to occupations without regard to sex, the shifts in occupational domination would have been much larger.[3]

FORGING AHEAD – On To the Present

Because of changes in the government's occupational classifications recently, comparisons between years presents difficulties. However, the 1970 and 1980 censuses contain good, detailed Utah occupational data. In point of fact, most traditionally "female" occupations are not so densely packed with women as they were in the previous decade.

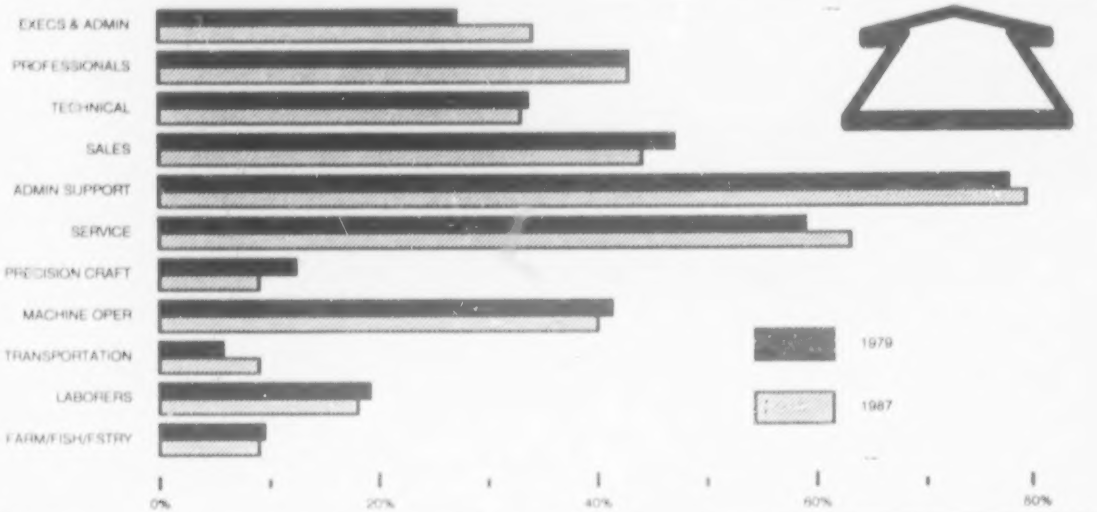
Men, too, carried on the trend, making inroads in eliminating occupational sex stereo-typing. Women accounted for a little over 95 percent of the Utah telephone operators in 1970. By 1980, their share had dropped by 10 percentage points to only 85 percent. Utah women in 1980 held a smaller share of registered nurse, kindergarten teacher, maid (in male cases, housemen), special education teacher, and personnel clerk positions than in 1970. However, even though the mix of sexes in certain occupations has been shifting, most jobs conventionally thought of as "women's work" remain more than fourth-fifths female.

THE LARGEST GAINS

Where have women been making the largest occupational gains? Turning again to the 1970 and 1980 Censuses, women made the largest gains in insurance adjuster, examiner, and investigator jobs – where they increased their share by over 40 percentage

UTAH WOMEN HAVE INCREASED THEIR SHARE OF MOST OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES

Chart 1. Utah Female Share of Employed Persons by Occupation, 1979 and 1987



points. Females also represented a substantially larger share of Utah's hotel clerks, computer operators, science technicians, and public relations specialists. The number of women bus drivers is also on the rise (a fact Utah Transit Authority riders already know). The evidence shows women making a faster-paced move into professional, technical, and managerial occupations than into blue collar, mechanical or structural jobs.

TO THE INNER SANCTUM

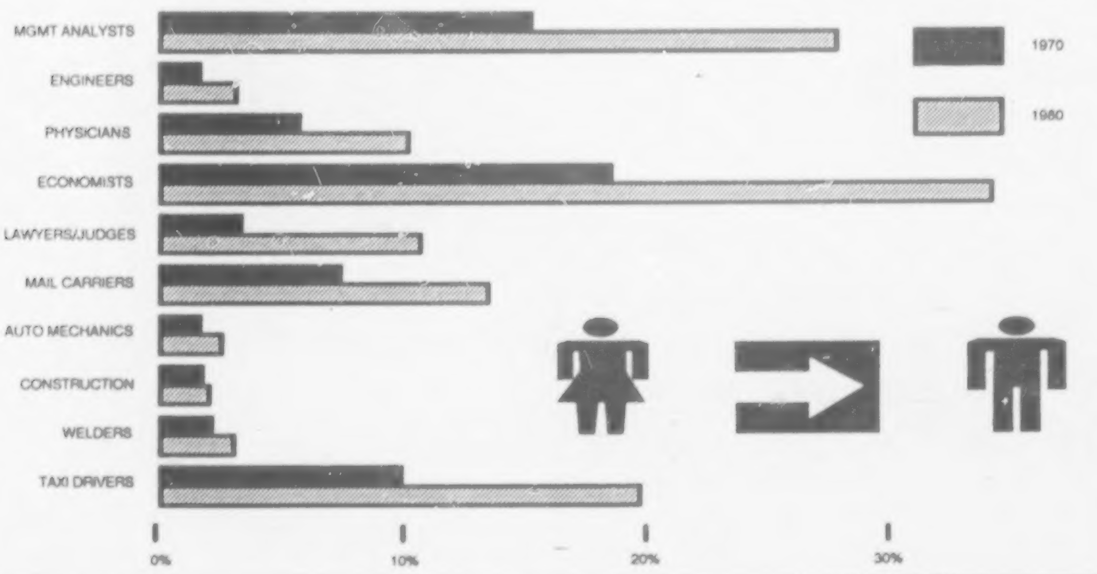
How have women advanced in "men's jobs?" Let's take a look. First, a warning: *use these statistics with caution*. In 1970, the number of surveyed women working in several of these occupations was so small that the figures may not be very reliable. However, they do provide an idea of how occupational standings have changed. What about a very conventional "man's job" – engineering? (As one of about five female freshman engineering students at Utah State University back in the early 70s, these figures sound reasonable.) The 1970 Census indicated only 1.6 percent of the State's engineers were women. By 1980, women had increased their share to 3.1 percent. Obviously, there has not been a mass migration of women into the engineering field.

What about doctors? Not quite six percent of Utah's doctors in 1970 were women. By 1980, the fraction of women physicians had almost doubled. The increase in female lawyers and judges was even more impressive – 10 percent in 1980 compared with 3 percent in 1970 (plus more and more law students are women).

Females have increased their share of several business-related occupations as well. In 1980, women made up 21 percent of purchasing managers, up almost 15 percentage points from 1970. Females could claim just about 28 percent of all 1980 management analyst jobs, nearly doubling their 1970 share. The number of women economists also increased rapidly. Granted, there existed very few female economists in 1970, but by 1980 they made up almost 38 percent of the total.

UTAH WOMEN ARE MOVING INTO MALE DOMINATED PROFESSIONS

Chart 2. Women as a Percent of Total Employed in Selected Male Dominated Occupations 1970 and 1980



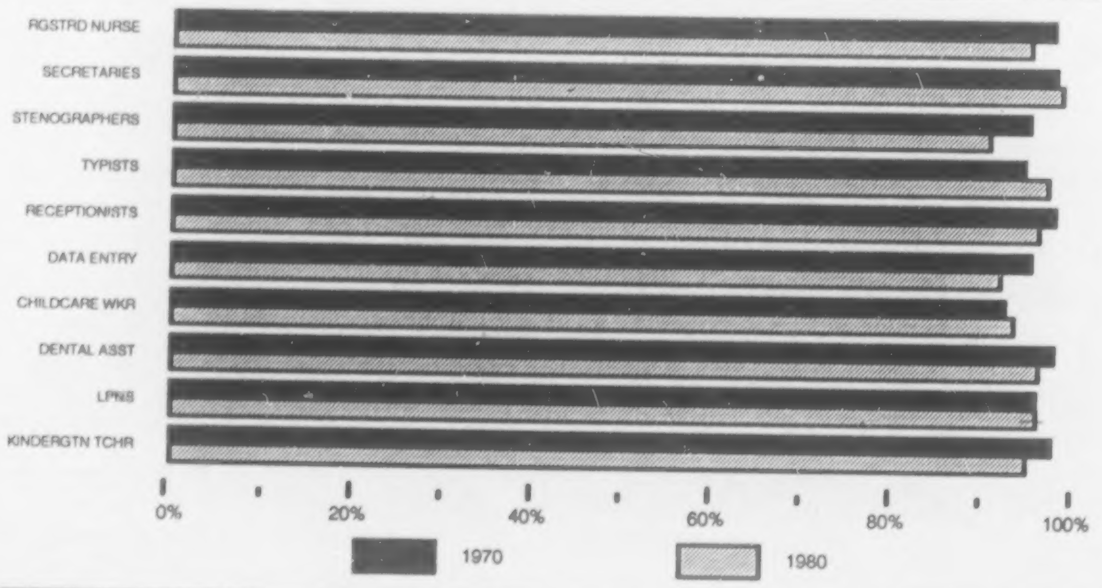
The 1970 Census didn't show any female architects or airline pilots in Utah, but by 1980 women made up 7 and 2 percent of these professions, respectively. All in all, women have been moving, albeit slowly, into those professions dominated by men. Still, the 1980 Census ranked Utah 45th out of 51 in the percentage of women in executive, administrative and managerial occupations.

STUCK IN A RUT

Although women may be breaking through some occupational barriers, several typically "female" jobs have become even more sex segregated. For example, women increased their share of the secretarial and typist professions between 1970 and 1980. As of the 1980 Census, 99 percent of all Utah secretaries were women; 97 percent of all typists were female. In fact, although people talk about women's liberation and equal rights, the occupational distribution of women has not changed significantly for 40 years.

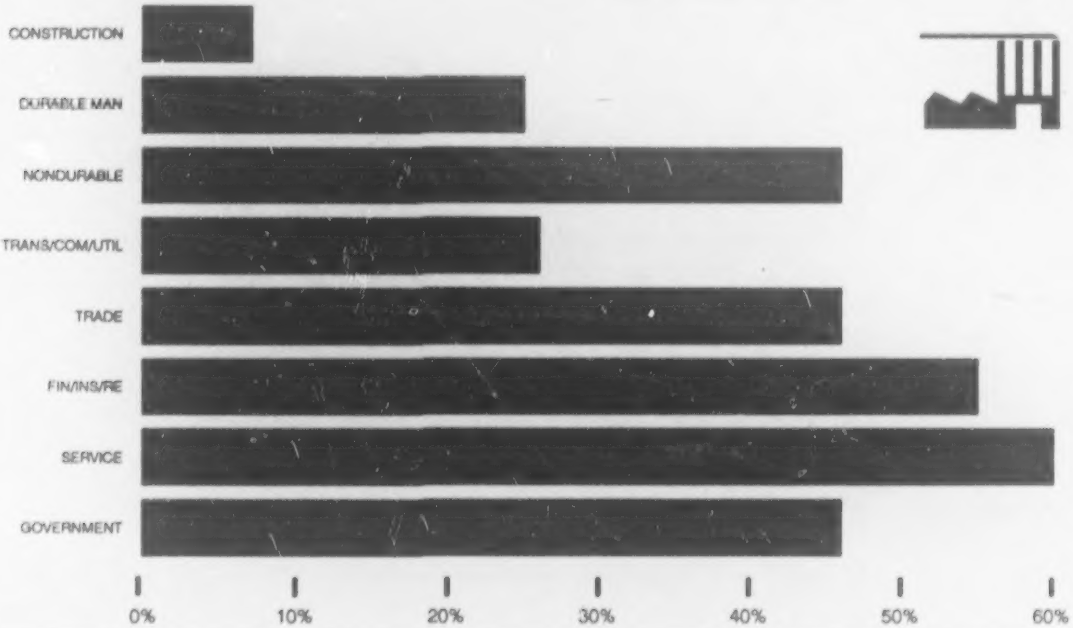
THE PINK COLLAR GHETTO REMAINS

Chart 3. Women as a Percent of Total Employed in Selected Female Dominated Occupations 1970 and 1980



WOMEN WORK IN ALL ECONOMIC SECTORS

Chart 4. Utah Women as a Percent of Total Employed by Industry, 1987 Annual Average



BY INDUSTRY—Segregation Here, Too

The variances in the distribution of women and men by occupation reflect their representation in various industries. In 1987, the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated only 8 percent of those employed in the Utah's construction industry were women. Utah's women find themselves represented slightly more in the transportation/communication/public utilities sector and the manufacturing industries. About 25 and 33 percent (respectively) of the workers in these sectors are females.

However, Utah's women make up roughly 46 percent of trade workers, 55 percent of financial employees, 46 percent of government workers and 60 percent of service industry employees. They also make up most of the private household workers, and the *overwhelming* majority of unpaid family workers. You might have observed that industries where women make up most of employees, tend to also pay lower salaries than those industries where women are in the minority (unpaid family workers get even less than a low salary).

THE REASONS—An explanation?

So the sexes aren't proportionately distributed in the various occupations. Why should women (or men for that matter) care if occupational segregation remains in the workplace? After all, women are more suited to certain kinds of work and men are more suited to other kinds of labor. Right? Wrong. A 1973 flyer from the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor states:

> *Jobs, with extremely rare exceptions, are sexless. Tradition rather than job content has led to labeling certain jobs as women's and others as men's. In measuring 22 inherent aptitudes and knowledge areas, a research laboratory found there is no sex difference in 14, women excel in six, and men excel in two.*[4]

There remain huge disadvantages to sex segregation by occupation. Low pay rises to number one on the list. And this issue may well be as important to men as it is to women since more and more two income families are emerging. While the following chapter covers income/earning issues, recognize that "female professions" generally pay low salaries.

The low status and lack of opportunity for advancement in professions dominated by women constitutes another adverse effect of separate occupations for men and women. Helen Gurley Brown may have achieved her editorship of *Cosmopolitan Magazine* by working up from the secretarial pool and may boast about the benefits of following her example; but for many women, clerical positions often constitute nothing more than "dead-ends."

Sex stereo-typing of jobs yields other unfavorable consequences. When society relegates women with specific capabilities because of their sex, to jobs which do not utilize their potential, society and the whole economy loses. This kind of underemployment spawns an inefficient allocation of resources. The country (and the State) ends up with reduced productivity at a substantial economic cost. As a result, underemployment deprives everyone of a portion of economic well-being—not just women and their children.

Nevertheless, there may be advantages to women in being "assigned" to certain occupations. Often these jobs do not require overtime, travel, or residential mobility which may make them attractive to women attempting to combine the traditional roles of wife and mother with a career.

THE PINK COLLAR GHETTO – Who Built the Walls?

But exactly why do women congregate in specific occupations? What explanations try to account for the pink collar ghetto? After all, the U.S. does not have centrally planned society forcing women to take certain jobs. So, why does the phenomena occur?

Women may consciously trade off higher wages, chances for greater advancement, and job status for the flexibility and reduced demands female occupations usually offer. In other words, women choose these kinds of jobs because they want to;

WHERE ARE WOMEN MAKING HEADWAY?

Table 10. Fifteen Occupations Where Women Have Increased Their Employment Share Utah, 1970 and 1980

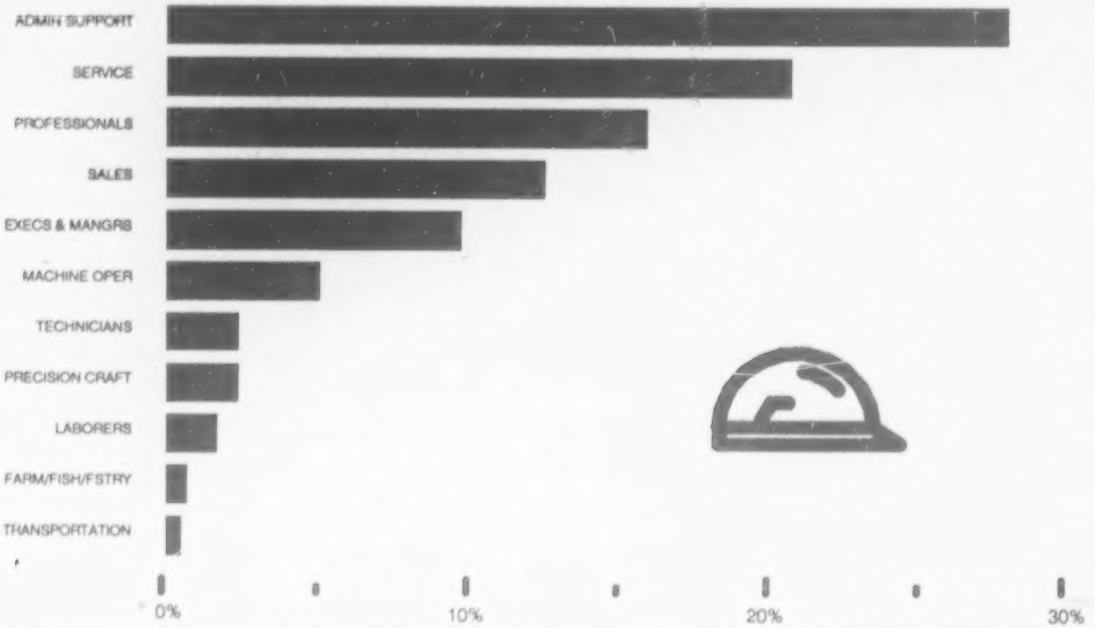
OCCUPATIONAL TITLE	WOMEN AS A % OF TOTAL EMPLOYED 1970	1980	CHANGE 1970-1980
Insurance Adjusters, Examiners & Investigators	26.1	66.3	40.2
Hotel Clerks	47.4	82.2	34.8
Computer Operators	36.6	65.2	28.6
Science Technicians	8.3	33.2	24.9
Public Relations Specialists	20.7	45.0	24.3
Bus Drivers	3.7	26.4	22.7
Bartenders	32.9	54.2	21.3
Bakers	23.9	44.7	20.8
Waiters & Waitresses' Assistants	29.4	49.8	20.4
Production Coordinators	19.2	39.2	20.0
Stock Handlers & Baggers	3.4	23.0	19.6
Transportation, Ticket & Reservation Agents	32.4	51.8	19.4
Supervisors, Food Preparation & Service	51.2	70.2	19.0
Therapists	45.8	64.1	18.3
Investigators & Adjustors, Except Insurance	37.3	55.1	17.8

SELECTION CRITERIA: The actual number of males and females in 1970 and 1980 equaled at least 100.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

FEW WOMEN WORK IN BLUE COLLAR JOBS

Chart 5. Share of Utah Women in Selected Occupations, 1987 Annual Average



they want to spend more time in familial pursuits, and these occupations offer them the opportunity to do so. However, this line of reasoning does not explain why women who plan life-long careers with no interruptions in tenure still end up in occupations dominated by their own sex.[5]

Women may underestimate substantially the chances they will work later in life. Women making their occupational choices early in life may think Prince Charming or Mr. Rich will marry them, he will carry them off, they will live happily ever after. Females may think they will be those "secondary" workers—traditionally moving in and out of the labor force.

Claudia Goldin suggests that because participation rates for adult women were low until the recent past, most women and their families would not have found it profitable to invest heavily in their job training. She contends that because each generation's participation rates exceed that of each previous cohort, all women may have difficulty predicting their own future labor force participation rates. Thus, these women may under-invest in the types of job training and formal schooling which would lead to different types of occupations[6]

One survey asked young women what type of work they wanted to be doing at age 35. The vast majority aspired to the same "typical" female occupations – even three-fourths of the college graduates aspired to female stereo-typed jobs.[7] Economist Nancy Barrett suggests that by underestimating the time they will spend working for a salary, women base their career choices on erroneous information, and thus make poor selections.[8]

Young, well-educated women are still concentrated in "female occupations." In 1984, out of U.S. women 25 to 34 years old with 5 or more years of college 13 percent were elementary school teachers and another 15 percent were registered nurses, social workers, or secondary school teachers.

Women may select predominately female occupations because they think these are the only jobs open to them. Socialization, in spite of new role models, may lead women to believe they qualify for only certain jobs or social stigma may be their lot if they choose jobs outside the traditional female realm.

INCREASING THEIR SHARE

Table 11. Utah and United States Percent of Female Employed Civilians by Occupation, 1987

OCCUPATION	PERCENT FEMALE UTAH	U.S.
Total	44	45
Managerial & Professional	42	44
Executive & Administrators	34	38
Professionals	49	50
Technical, Sales & Support	61	65
Technical	35	49
Sales	44	48
Administrative Support	78	80
Service Occupations	63	61
Precision Production, Crafts & Repairs	9	8
Operators, Fabricators & Laborers	25	26
Farming, Forestry & Fishing	9	16

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Even in today's supposedly "liberated" society, choosing a "man's job" may not be an easy road for most women.

Women may be denied access to certain jobs because of sexual discrimination. Yes, discrimination. Employers might prefer men for some jobs because they think women are not as committed to the job as men and training costs will be lost if their female employees leave the job. Employers may think men always do a better job than women.

Because of their preferences, employers may possibly hire men and women for very different entry-level jobs. Who hasn't heard stories about women college graduates hired as secretaries while their male classmates were hired as management trainees? Even though misinformation forms the basis for this kind of discrimination, it still seems to exist.

One study of women with a high commitment to work found their occupations still differed considerably from those expected if determined by the same process as men's positions.[9] In other words, jobs for these women fell short of the occupations researcher might expect for men of the same age, experience, and education. The researchers involved in this study viewed this as evidence of substantial employer discrimination in job assignment for women workers.

IN CLOSING — One Last Review

Although women are making headway in obtaining jobs previously considered predominantly a man's "dominion," this progress has been slow. Women to a certain degree are just as locked into occupationally segregated jobs as they were at the turn of the century. The division of the sexes by job classification seems to produce inequities in the marketplace and to hurt everyone economically. Most explanations for sexual occupational segregation focuses on personal preferences, socialization, and discrimination.

CHAPTER 4
EARNINGS/INCOME

Utah Women and the 53 Cent Dollar

"The needle and midnight candle are yet considered by too many, the proper appliances of woman's sphere. Custom also says that if a woman does as much work as a man, and does it well, she must not receive equal pay for it, and therein a wrong is inflicted upon her by the deprivation of a right to which she is justly entitled."

Eliza R. Snow
Prominent Utah Author, 1872

CHAPTER 4

EARNINGS AND INCOME

Utah Women and the 53 Cent Dollar

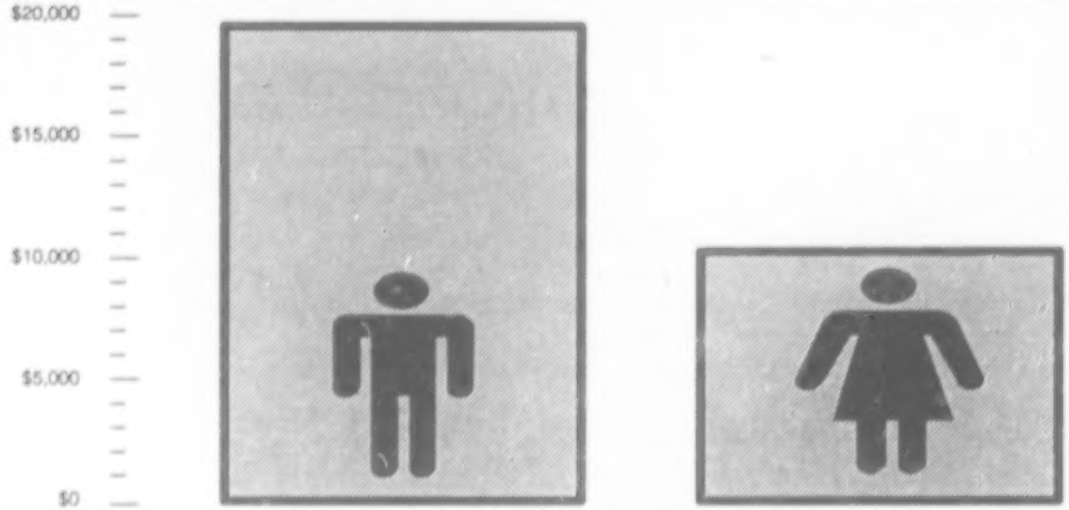
According to the Census, in 1979, the median earnings for year-round, full-time Utah female workers registered $10,282. In the same year, the median earnings for year-round, full-time male workers equaled $19,558. On the average, then, women earned approximately 53 percent of the salaries of their male counterparts. No, that figure is not a printing error! In 1979, women, on the average, earned just slightly more than half men's salaries. Moreover, women in Utah appear somewhat worse off than their sisters nationwide. The comparable ratio of female to male earnings for the country as a whole fell at 56 percent. Remember, these statistics *exclude* people who work only part-time or part of the year (mostly women) and still this dramatic discrepancy in pay remains.

CLOSING IN AT LAST—The Eighties

Even more remarkable? So little change has materialized in the female/male earnings differential during the past thirty years—a period when women made gains in the "high paying" professions. Data series published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) show that before the early 80s the male/female earnings ratio for year-round full-time workers hovered right around 60 percent. Depending on what data series you examine, the detail or level changed. However, any particular series reveals very little movement in the gap—until 1980. This report would have included a graph, but who wants to look at a flat, horizontal line?

THE AVERAGE FULL-TIME UTAH WOMAN WORKER MADE ONLY 53 PERCENT OF HER MALE COUNTERPART'S WAGE IN 1979

Chart 1. Utah Median Earnings of Year-Round, Full-Time Workers by Sex, 1979



Nevertheless, recent national figures lead economists to believe earnings are converging. In 1987, the ratio for one particular data series (weekly earnings for full-time, year-round wage and salary earners) showed median female earnings to be 70 percent of male earnings. Unfortunately, part of the national gain was attributable to the falling real wage of men during the 80s. On the other hand, researchers at Rand Corporation suggest most of the declining wage gap was due to the increased labor force participation of college-educated women. Gains are most dramatic for younger women (baby boomers).[1]

No post-Census Utah male/female earnings data exist. However, earnings for Utah women are probably advancing in the same basic direction as the rest of the nation – although Utah most likely lags behind.

THE DATA PROBLEM — No single number

The male/female earnings issue is incredibly complex. *Incredibly*. For the U.S., statisticians manipulate the data so many different ways that an absolute "wage gap" figure is impossible to find. And as mentioned, Utah figures are primarily limited to Census data. In addition, the statistics don't always mean what they seem to mean. And finally, current data are not always strictly comparable to data collected in the past. To even half-way understand what the data implies, one needs to be intimately acquainted with it.

WHY THE CONFUSION?

Why does so much confusion exist over the wage gap? There are series calculating the wage gap for the experienced labor force, wage and salary nonfarm workers, for full-time workers, for part-time workers, based on annual wages, monthly wages, or hourly wages. Data on earnings are available based on experience, occupation, education, marital status, age and so on and so on and so on.

However, all series for full-time, year-round workers show women earning about 30 percent less than men. (At this point, Disraeli's quote about damned lies and statistics could be rather boring.) Rather than worrying about which statistics are which, and which statistics are "right," and which statistics are relevant, and which statistics are comparable, the general trend and direction of the data are the most important matter of concern. Too many numbers may even cloud the issue.

INCOME VERSUS EARNINGS – SOME DEFINITIONS

Now is a good time to talk about the difference between earnings and income. Listed below are some basic bureaucratic, but useful, definitions.

INCOME: *Includes wage and salary income; nonfarm net self-employment income; farm self-employment income (net); interest, dividends, net royalty or rental income; Social Security or Railroad Retirement income; public assistance or welfare income; and all other income. Does not include lump-sum type receipts (such as insurance payments), the value of "in kind" income, employer contributions to pen-*

THE TOP TEN FOR MEN

Table 12. Utah's Ten Top-Paying Male Occupations for Full-time, Year-round Workers, 1979

OCCUPATION	MALE MEDIAN EARNINGS	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS % OF TOTAL
Physicians	$45,748	40.6	7.9
Dentists	36,481	19.2	1.0
Health Diagnosing	30,050	42.3	5.6
Lawyers & Judges	27,299	57.0	7.2
Rail/Water Transportation	25,573	56.3	0.7
Managers, Medicine & Health	25,470	54.0	38.1
Administrators, Education	25,124	46.0	16.2
Post Secondary Teachers	25,061	62.5	12.8
Managers, Manufacturing	24,413	59.4	10.1
Managers, Trans/Comm/Util	24,070	59.4	10.1

NOTE: Male employment in each occupation equaled at least 100.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

sions, gifts, exchange of money between family members, tax refunds, etc.[2]

EARNINGS: *Wage or salary income and net income from farm and nonfarm self-employment.*[3]

A good deal of the available data about monies received by individuals and other detailed characteristics deals with income rather than earnings. Although "income statistics" include other sorts of payments besides earnings, they may paint a more complete picture of "the gap" in terms of certain characteristics such as education, age, etc.

This report uses all varieties of data to illustrate the income/earnings differences between men and women. The earnings gap is probably the most significant and controversial issue related to female employment and the more statistical relationships examined, the more likely understanding can be achieved.

EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION — Bringing Home the Bacon

The 1980 Census provides information on Utah earnings by occupation for both sexes (see the Appendix for a detailed break-

THE TOP TEN FOR WOMEN

Table 13. Utah's Ten Top-Paying Female Occupations for Full-time, Year-round Workers, 1979

OCCUPATION	FEMALE MEDIAN EARNINGS	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE WORKERS AS % OF TOTAL
Computer Scientists & Analysts	$19,426	86.9	12.3
Physicians	18,554	40.6	7.9
Lawyers & Judges	15,845	57.0	7.2
Post Secondary Teachers	15,667	62.5	12.8
Engineers	15,108	65.6	2.7
Auto Mechanics	14,629	96.9	1.8
Registered Nurses	14,315	87.7	94.0
Managers, Trans/Comm/Util	14,291	59.4	10.1
Managers, Medicine & Health	13,761	54.0	38.1
Natural Scientists	13,481	64.5	9.9

NOTE: **Female employment in each occupation equaled at least 100.**

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

down). Based on Census data, female dominated occupations are generally low paying. The accompanying two tables, compiled from Census information, yield significant earnings information. One list provides the ten top-paying occupations for Utah men; the other, the ten top-paying occupations for Utah women (for a particular occupation to make the list, employment equaled at least 100). Close examination of these two tables, reveals the best paying jobs for men are very often the best paying jobs for women. As one might expect, doctors, lawyers, managers, and college instructors make the list for both sexes. However, the median earnings of women in these occupations falls far below the median earnings of men in the same professions.

THE TOP TEN

Only female nurses, auto mechanics, and computer scientists made more than 80 percent of their male counterparts' salaries. Notice that none of these professions made the men's "top ten" list! For the best-paying male occupations, the female/male earnings ratio averaged right around 60 percent.

In what occupations did women most closely approach their male co-workers' salaries? Female auto mechanics did very well – they made (on average) almost 97 percent of the male mechanic's wage. Again, employment equaled at least 100 for the occupations included on this list. While they may do comparably well, less than 2 percent of all Utah auto mechanics are female. Women laborers also made about the same as male laborers. Again, this is not an occupation anyone would call "woman's work."

Nursing aides, registered nurses, secretaries, and waitresses (all heavily female dominated) did make the top ten earnings ratio roster; but median salaries in these occupations lean toward the low end of the pay scale. Waitresses only made 78 percent of a waiter's salary, yet this occupation still made the list. To be fair, please note that female bank tellers made more, as a general rule, than did male bank tellers. However, since employment of male tellers in 1980 did not equal at least one hundred, the category didn't make the list.

NOT ALWAYS SUCH HIGH PAY

In a recent nationwide survey of detailed earnings by occupation and sex, Nancy Rytina reported highest paid occupations for women are about the same as those for men, but women's pay does not approach the earnings of men in the same occupations—paralleling Utah data. She also noted high paying U.S. occupations for women do not attract immense numbers of female workers.[4]

To put it simply,the average woman hardly ever makes as much as her male co-worker, regardless of occupation. Even in predominantly female professions, women's wages fall significantly below men's wages.

INCOME AND EDUCATION — Earning and Learning

Teachers and parents always tell students that a good education is necessary for a good paying job (except, of course, for those difficult people who tell stories about Ph.d's washing dishes). Well, in general, the old axiom holds true. Income (which includes more than earnings) exhibits a clear, positive, relationship to education—for both sexes. In other words— generally, the higher the education, the higher the income.

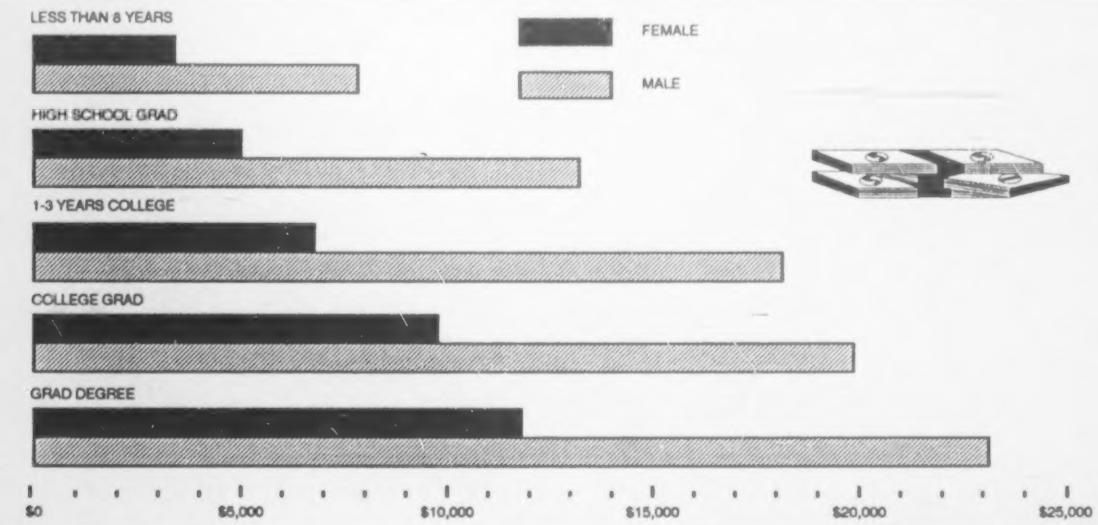
However, in 1979, the median income received by Utah women with three years of college was less than the median income for

Utah men with a seventh grade education. Of course, the inclusion of certain income items tends to skew certain relationships with respect to earnings. However, given the total pay gap and earnings' large share of income, examining only earnings would likely provide similar results. At the very least, trends would appear in the same general direction. As anticipated by many, unless a woman has very little education, her income normally rises with increased schooling. Women with seven or more years of college display the least earnings disparity when compared with men.

Increased education seems to improve the likelihood that a woman's income will more closely approximate her male counterpart's income. Also, women with higher educations are more likely to be labor force participants. However, even on the doctorate level, women's median income measured only 51 percent of the comparable male's.

UTAH WOMEN AVERAGE LESS INCOME THAN MEN AT EVERY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Chart 2. Utah Median Income by Educational Level and Sex, 1979



INCOME AND AGE — Growing Older and Richer

Based entirely upon casual observation, most individuals agree that income increases with age (at least until retirement). The statistics support this theory—for both sexes. However, the income gap is no respecter of age. Studies of all age groups suggest "the gap" is alive and well. Younger women's income most closely approximates their male peer's income. Of course, females in the lower age groups are more likely single, in the work force, and possess an employment history similar to males of the same age. Today's younger women tend to be better educated, wait longer to get married, and stay in the work force—even after matrimony and childbirth.

MONEY AND THE FAMILY — Women's Contributions

The renumeration a woman receives for her participation in the labor force adds significantly to her family's economic well-being. In 1979, women contributed nearly 16 percent of the earnings of all Utah's married-couple families. (U.S. women were responsible for 19 percent of their family's total earnings.) When both husband and wife maintained year-round, full-time work commitments, the wife's contribution amounted to a third of her family's earnings. These families also demonstrated the highest median earnings of any labor force status grouping of couples. Women who worked part-time while their husband's worked full-time (a fifth of all married-couple families) contributed 13 percent of the total family earnings pie.

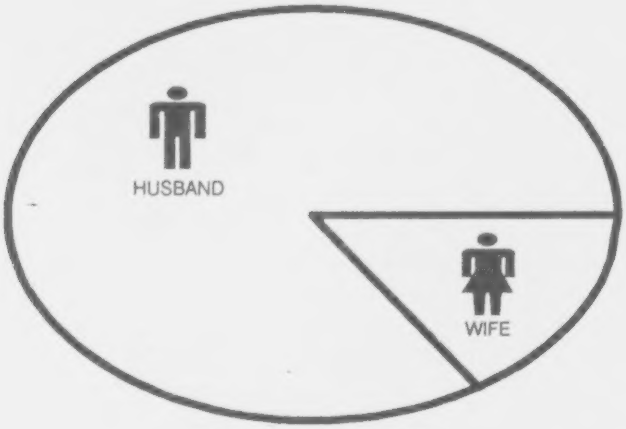
One interesting fact arises from the data. In married-couple families where the wife worked full-time/year-round and her husband worked part-time, the wife's earnings made up little more than half of the family's total. Apparently, "the gap" rarely disappears for husbands and wives.

Isabel Sawhill suggests there is a greater prevalence of marriage—and a lower probability of divorce—when women's wages or their likelihood of working are low. Moreover, marital stability is greater the greater the difference between husbands' and wives' earnings. This relationship could imply fewer long-term marriages if the gap between women's and men's earnings narrows.[5]

Schooling has a positive effect on income, but how does the educational mix between a husband and wife influence the portion

UTAH WOMEN CONTRIBUTE SIGNIFICANTLY TO TOTAL FAMILY EARNINGS

Chart 3. Utah Percent Share of Spousal Contribution to Family Earnings, 1979



MEAN FAMILY EARNINGS

of the family's income the woman provides? Generally, the more education the man has, the smaller the fraction of the family's income is contributed by the woman, regardless of her educational background. Utah women with college degrees married to men with college degrees furnished only 15 percent of their combined earnings in 1979.

Even women with four years of college married to men with fewer than four years of high school supplied less than a quarter of the family livelihood. Note that, nationwide, women provided a higher portion of family earnings across all educational categories than did their Utah counterparts.

It's now time to switch gears and talk about income. The income of women falls short of the income of men in every tabulated marital category. And, Utah women fare worse than women in the U.S. as a whole. For example, the median income for Utah's women householders registers about 45 percent of the same figure for male householders (which has poverty implications). Incomes seem to be most comparable for nonspouse relatives in families – a female/male income ratio of about three-fourths.

WHY THE GAP? – A Complex Issue

The existence of the female earnings/income gap seems irrefutable; but the reasons for it are much less clear. What explanations attempt to account for this wage discrepancy? Probably more has been written on this particular female employment issue than on any other. Before reading the rationalizations listed below, understand that research may not corroborate the suggested explanations. However, this report includes these justifications in order to present a complete picture of the issues.

Women demonstrate "career preferences"_ for lower-paying "female" occupations. A corollary suggests women avoid choosing, for personal reasons, occupations requiring a substantial investment in education, on-the-job training or commitment to the job. In addition to providing marginal salaries, typically "female" occupations also concentrate in industries with low average hourly earnings (see the "Occupations" chapter). In other words, perhaps the "self-segregation" of women into low paying professions and occupations accounts for part of the pay differential.

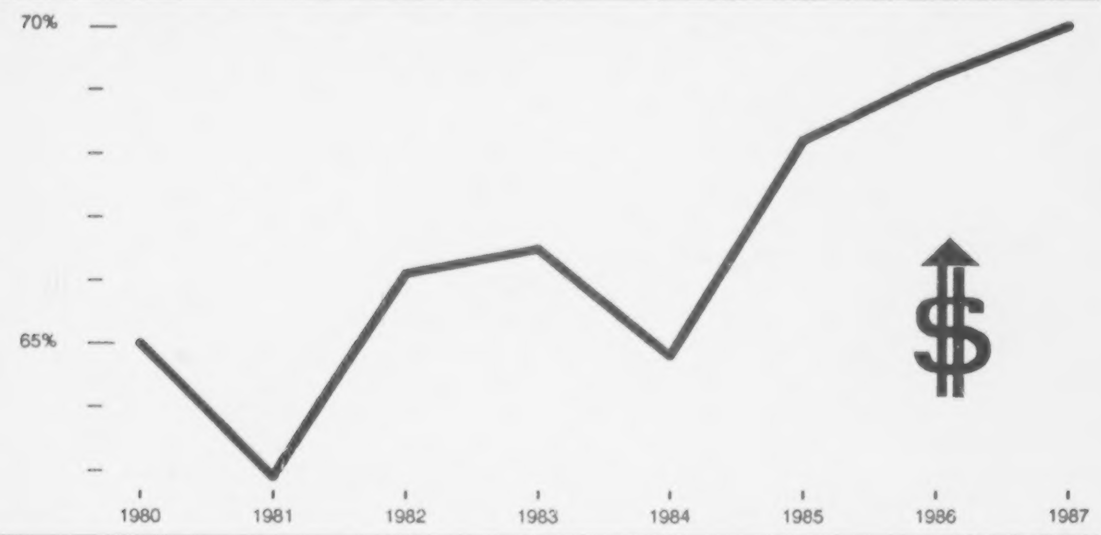
THE OCCUPATIONAL FACTOR

One study concludes that up to 30 percent of the wage gap results from the distribution of men and women into different occupations.[6] Other research shows that among married white college graduates, job segregation accounted for almost 70 percent of the earnings gap.[7] A *Newsweek* survey seemed to conclude that the less traditional a woman's occupation, the more likely she was to earn a high income.[8] However, other research implies that even in traditionally female occupations, men's earnings have measured consistently higher than women's earnings since 1960.[9]

The use of Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) establishment wage survey data suggests a narrower wage gap than the aggregate earnings data imply. A recent BLS study concluded the average pay for men in narrowly defined white-collar occupational skill levels generally exceeds the earnings of their female counterparts. Nevertheless, the difference appeared much smaller than that found in studies using less detailed data.[10] Some economists point out that the surge of women into nontraditional jobs only

U.S. WOMEN ARE CLOSING THE WAGE GAP

Chart 4. U.S. Women's Monthly Earnings a a Percent of Men's Earnings
Year-round, Full-Time Workers, 1980-1987



began in the early 1970's. In some firms, women have not been working long enough to be in line for top executive positions.[11]

A REAL INFLUENCE?

On the other hand, researchers Duncan and Corcoran argue only weak evidence exists that women who work in "typically female" occupations – secretarial, teaching, nursing, and the various service jobs – earn lower wages than equally qualified women in other occupations. "In other words," Corcoran and Duncan explain, "lower average wages in occupations where women congregate may simply reflect the generally lower wages paid to women in any occupation." Their research into actual work histories does not support the claim that many women's lower earnings resulted primarily from society "locking females into low-paying job ghettos."[12]

HUSBANDS AND WIVES, EARNINGS AND EDUCATION

Table 14. Utah and United States Wife's Earnings as a Percent of Total Family Earnings Married Couple Familes by Years of Education, 1979

	Wife's Educational Level		
Husband's Education	4 or More Years College	4 Years High School to 1-3 Years College	Less Than 4 Years High School
UTAH			
4 or More Years College	15.3	13.9	9.8
4 Years High School to 1-3 Years College	22.0	16.2	14.1
Less Than 4 Years High School	23.0	19.4	16.7
U.S.			
4 or More Years College	19.9	15.5	13.9
4 Years High School to 1-3 Years College	26.6	18.6	14.5
Less Than 4 Years High School	29.8	21.1	16.6

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

MOVING IN AND OUT

Many women want to move in and out of the work force, choosing to remain at home, if they can, while their children are young. This work pattern may hold true for some women, but research shows that, increasingly, most women can be differentiated by two different categories – those always in the labor force and those always out.[13] Claudia Goldin reports that despite the currently accepted notion that married women universally experienced interruptions in their work careers, the majority who entered the labor force in their thirties had not worked since they were single, if even at that time.[14]

Even if women do interrupt their employment, does this necessarily lead to lower earnings? Mincer and Polachek theorized two reasons discontinuous work history patterns might produce lower earnings. One, interruptions in market work generate lower levels of accumulated human capital. In other words, a person who is out of the labor market is not gaining the new work skills and experience of someone with a continuous work history. Two, interruptions cause a depreciation in existing human capital. So, time away from the workplace also costs in terms of foregone experience.[15] On the other hand, other studies detected very little evidence of this "depreciation effect."[16] The debate over this issue still rages on between social scientists with conflicting research from both sides.

Recent analysis conducted by the U.S. Department of Commerce concludes work interruptions explain only a small proportion of the earnings differential between women and men. True, women on the average tend to experience more work interruptions than men; and these interruptions appear to be family related. However, this study reports that, work interruptions turned out to be less important than either general experience or education as determinants of earnings for both women and men.[17]

Other research comparing wives with women who never married found the continuous work experience of the never-marrieds did not result in substantially higher wages. The two groups experienced the same modest growth of earnings with age.[18]

OCCUPATIONAL TENURE

Women tend to have spent less time in a particular job than men. Economists give this idea a fancy name—occupational tenure; normal people just call it "experience." This explanation ties "the gap" quite closely to work interruptions. A person with significantly more/longer breaks in employment will tend to accumulate less experience in their present occupation.

However, a study reports sex differences in the distribution of occupational tenure account for only about 4 percent of the wage gap. This same research found that potential experience maintains an effect on earnings apart from the larger impacts of occupational tenure. Notwithstanding, for women, the actual tenure in the occupation emerges as a stronger predictor of earnings than it does for men.[19]

Duncan and Corcoran found women (particularly white women) accumulated less (average) full-time work experience than men, but these differences accounted for barely 30 percent of the wage differential between white men and women.[20]

EDUCATION

Women's educational attainment falls below men's thus limiting their employment. Duncan and Corcoran found average educational attainments of white men and white women were so similar that the difference could account for only 2 percent of the wage gap.[21] However, women remain disproportionately illiterate in mathematics, science, and engineering (often because of socialization and not ability). This illiteracy closes the doors to many high paying positions. On a college level, women still show a tendency to choose majors leading to stereo-typical jobs such as the humanities, home economics, etc.

LESS PRODUCTIVE???

Employers pay women less than men with the same characteristics on the same job because, on average, they produce less. Since job production is so difficult to measure and compare across occupations, most tests in this area base their analysis on presumed differences between men and women in job commitment and ability. However, research indicates – to the extent that

THE TOP TEN PAY RATIO

Table 15. Utah's Ten Occupations with Highest Female/Male Pay Ratio, Year-Round, Full-Time Workers ,1979

OCCUPATION	FEMALE/MALE EARNINGS RATIO	FEMALE MEDIAN WAGE	% OF FEMALE WORKERS
Auto Mechanics	96.9	$14,629	1.8
Painters, Construction & Maintenance	95.1	15,056	3.3
Laborers, Durable Manufacturing	94.9	15,257	11.5
Nursing Aides, Orderlies & Attendants	88.8	7,316	83.5
Registered Nurses	87.7	14,315	94.0
Computer Scientists & Analysts	86.9	19,426	12.3
Secretaries	78.9	9,535	98.9
Drafting & Survey Technicians	78.6	12,286	11.0
Cooks	78.3	6,938	49.5
Waiters & Food Counter Workers	77.8	5,754	86.3

Note: Female employment in each occupation equaled at least 100 .

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

productivity is measurable—equally productive men and women make unequal wages.[22]

PULLING DOWN THE AVERAGE

Certain groups of women may pull down the average wage. Claudia Goldin contends that it is precisely because the female labor force has expanded that the earnings of women relative to those of men have remained the same. The average work experience and education of a working population are two of the most important determinants of earnings. For women, increased labor force participation has stabilized the former and slowed down the increase in the latter. In other words, recent female entrants depress the average wage.[23]

Moreover, although most women are delaying marriage/childbirth and obtaining a better education, significant numbers of young girls become pregnant too soon, marry too young, or divorce with inadequate support for their children. These women with few job skills, little education, and no male support often end up on the welfare rolls or in jobs paying minimum wage. These women drag down the average (or median as the case may be) wage for all women.

WHERE'S THAT PROMOTION?

Women do not advance as quickly as men. Although women are moving into the professions, employers don't seem to promote women as quickly as men. Even as continuously employed women get older, their earnings do not rise as rapidly as men's do. One study concludes the failure of women to rise as fast as men with the same amount of education in the same occupation was the major cause of the female earnings deficit.[24]

Two Smith College economists—Susan Boslego Carter and Michael Carter— in their work, "Women's Recent Progress in the Professions or, Women Get a Ticket to Ride After the Gravy Train Has Left the Station," provide some interesting insights. The Carters point out that, while in the past, a person's first job was a good forecaster of the quality of their future career, this has not proved to be the case for many women. A growing number of economists, including the Carters, feel a "two-track" job system is emerging.

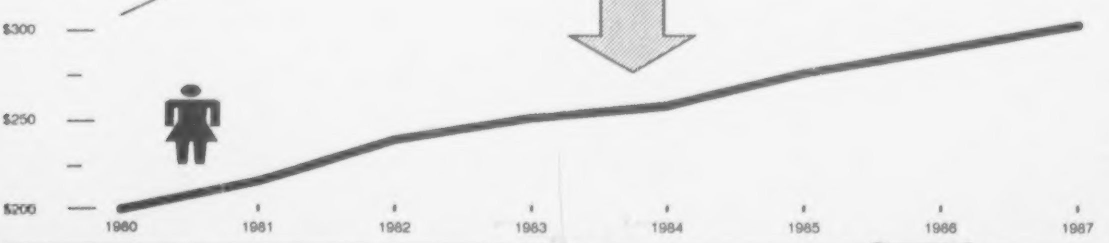
The first track offers good paying jobs, with high prestige and an opportunity for advancement. On the other hand, the second track (jobs in the same occupation) is creating a new class of routine, relatively low-paying jobs, unconnected to promotion ladders. Women seem to be populating the second track of these professional jobs. For example, about three-fourths of male doctors are "office-based" compared with just over half of female doctors. Physicians in private practice generally have the highest potential for high incomes. A similar pattern occurs in business. Many feel that while women are making inroads educationally and into middle management, their advancement into top management is being stymied.[25]

NO PROTÉGÉES?

Myra Strober, the director of Stanford's Center for Research on Women, explains that male executives tend to choose successors who are like themselves.[26] Women who do succeed, such as Mary Cunningham, are often faced with a subtle form of sexual harass-

THE GAP

Chart 5. U.S. Average Weekly Earnings for Men and Women, 1980-1987



ment which attempts to undermine their credibility by assuming the only way a woman gets ahead quickly is through sexual favors.

The Duncan and Corcoran study suggests that although men were a little more likely to have gotten their jobs through the "old boy network," data on actual earnings showed little evidence that this road leads to substantially higher pay for either sex. However, they did find men were more likely to obtain positions with longer training periods (which may eventually lead to higher pay).

These researchers also discovered that the earnings of those who merely supervise their co-workers don't differ significantly from earnings of nonsupervisory personnel. However, jobs with authority to hire/fire/promote were associated with a 20 percent higher pay rate. Only about one in ten working women compared with one in four working men had authority over the pay and promotion of others. Duncan and Corcoran point out, "In fact, many theorists see such hierarchical authority structures as the means of preserving an existing social or economic structure, often implying the existence of some form of discrimination or inequity."[27]

DISCRIMINATION

Employers pay women less because they discriminate. A survey of Salt Lake women found the majority do not feel they receive the same wages as a man doing equal work.[28] Feelings are one thing, actual studies are another. One consistent finding does emerge from the research presented above: introducing more economic and demographic factors into the analysis reduces the estimated female wage gap. However, no authoritative research claims to have explained the pay gap away entirely.

Mincer and Polachek accounted for 70 percent of the gap between married men and women.[29] A review of wage gap research by the National Academy of Sciences panel showed worker characteristics accounted for, at most, 44 percent of the differential.[30] Duncan and Corcoran reported, "less than half of the earnings gap can be explained by the kinds of differences in job commitment or work qualifications that could affect the earnings potential of any worker, male or female.

Most of the gap remains unexplainable and may indeed reflect some institutionalized discrimination against women in the working world."[31] Although the lack of any total explanation of the wage gap suggests discrimination, it does not prove it. However, the fact remains – after including all measurable variables in earnings equations, research fails to remove all the wage variance between men and women.

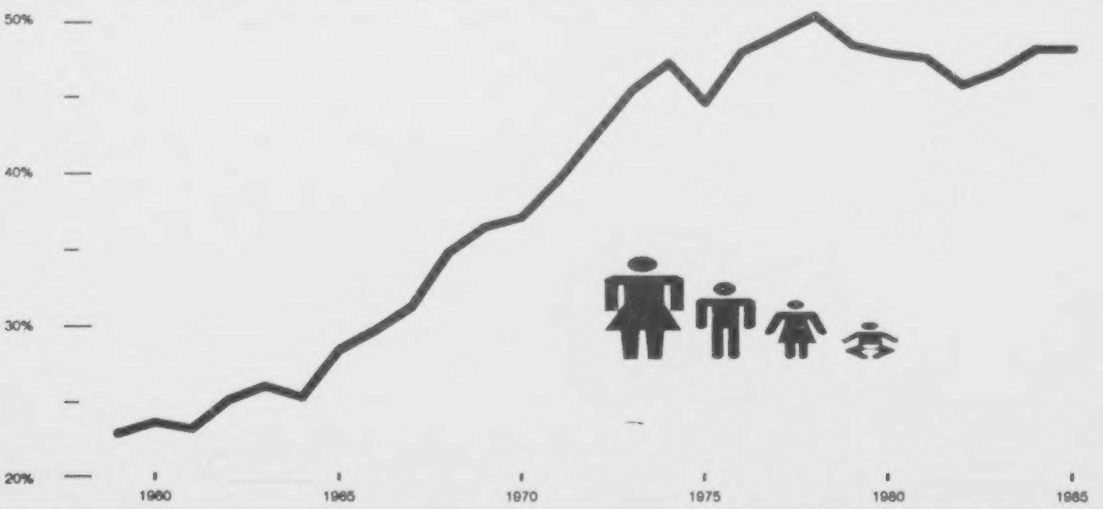
COMPARABLE WORTH – The Hot Compensation Issue

Now, this report turns to a discussion of the controversial concept of comparable worth. Traditional "female" jobs generally pay less than do traditional "male" jobs – after the foregoing discussion, an abundantly clear fact. Some charge that American women are being systematically and illegally underpaid for work that is different but equal in difficulty to that done by men.

A definition of comparable worth is not easily compiled. Some use comparable worth and pay equity interchangeably. Others do not. For this report, "comparable worth" or "pay equity" is defined as a technique where jobs are given a numerical rating which is then used to set salaries. This method compares jobs across occupational categories rather than within them. For example, a com-

THE SHARE OF POOR FAMILIES HEADED BY WOMEN HAS RISEN

Chart 6. U.S. Share of Poor Families Headed by Women, 1960-1985



parable worth system might rank as equal a carpenter's job and a secretary's job – two professions with substantially different average salaries.

Dan Evans (then governor of Washington State) commissioned one of the first studies on this issue. A private firm rated as "comparable", many kinds of work which consistently paid men higher wages and many kinds of lower-paying work typically done by women. The firm attributed a large portion of the differences "to traditional job relationships rather than to relative job worth." U.S. District Judge Jack Tanner ruled that Washington State had "historically engaged in employment discrimination on the basis of sex."[32] Tanner ordered salary increases and four year's back pay for more than 15,000 workers – 90 percent of whom were women. Individuals are pressing a substantial number of "comparable worth" cases in the judicial system.

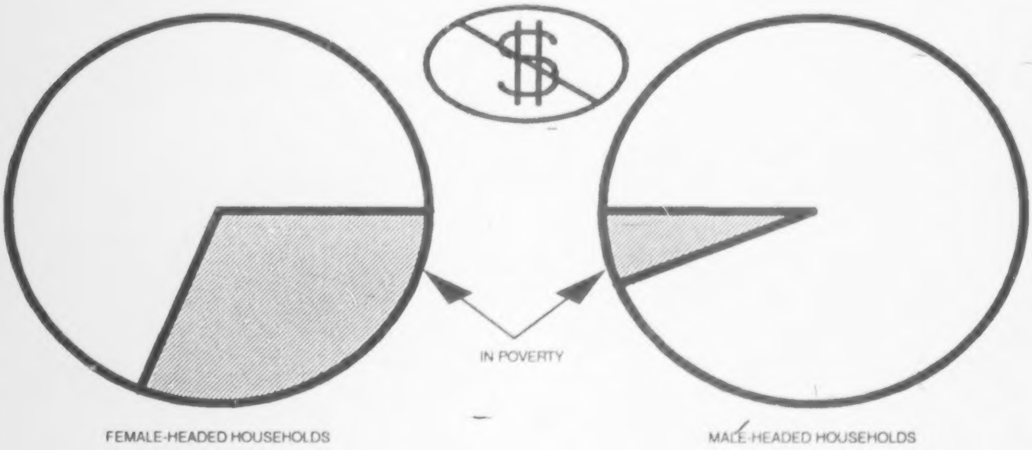
In June of 1981, the Supreme Court held that women could use this controversial theory to bring sex-bias suits under federal civil rights law even if the disputes didn't involve equal jobs. However, results are mixed. So far, most of the comparable worth battles are concentrated in the public sector; and no one is sure at this point who is going to "win" or what effect the outcome will have on the private sector.

Garth and Stephen Mangum suggest comparable worth might "not be such a loony tune as long as it is whistled in the public sector." The Mangums report that the demand for labor in public employment is quite inelastic, such that pay can increase substantially without significant loss in employment opportunities.

> *Since the economic constraints are less in the public than in the private sectors, since political pressure can be exercised for as well as against the concept, since women are a higher percent of total public than private employment and since public wage-setting systems offer the flexibility for doing so, incremental public sector progress toward comparable worth is only to be expected. As long as accomplished piecemeal without legislative fiat, the cost will be imposed primarily on male employees whose pay will rise less rapidly than might otherwise have been the case. But as long as the male/female wage gap erodes slowly, that will*

ALMOST ONE-THIRD OF PERSONS LIVING IN FEMALE - HEADED HOUSEHOLDS LIVE BELOW THE POVERTY LINE

Chart 7. Utah Percentage of Individuals Below Poverty by Sex of Householder, 1979



> *cause less work place unrest than unwillingness to respond to women's demands. What might be a loony tune if played in crescendo may be a lullaby if played pianissimo and andante.*[33]

Opponents of comparable worth contend the economy has set a lower value on "female-type" jobs and messing around with the "free market" is just going to cause inequities and inefficiencies in the system. However, current estimates by Sandra Gleason and Collette Moser suggest that the number of jobs eliminated each year would be less than the estimated annual attrition in the public sector if comparable worth is implemented over a five-year period.[34]

Other skeptics believe raising the salaries of "women's jobs" will just result in increased occupational segregation. Some even suspect enforcing the pay-equity issues would eventually mean a centrally planned U.S. economy, where the bureaucracy would make arbitrary decisions about the value of everybody's job.

However, the limited research available indicates that the maximum expected pay-equalizing effect would be a decrease of no more than 4 percent.[35] As mentioned earlier, the earnings issue is an amazingly complex one. Many individuals proposing comparable worth as a remedy to pay disparities and poverty jump from simple descriptive statistics to comparable worth without rigorously analyzing the small amount of data that exists. In addition, many comparable worth arguments come close to implying work has an intrinsic or innate value, apart from the monetary wage it commands in the labor market. This notion is not statistically demonstrable or part of any economic theory. Comparable worth is also a complex policy issue, which deserves more study.

Much of the furor over pay equity has died. Nevertheless, a large number of women still support the policy and more and more women are entering the work force. Regardless of the opposition, comparable worth could still become one of the hottest compensation issues of the decade.

EARNING MORE THAN HUSBANDS — Movers and Shakers?

Recently, a slight flurry was created in the press when the Census Bureau released a national study on women who earn more than their spouses. Headlines in newspapers and magazines read like this, "Six Million Women Earn More than Husbands." Obviously, these women are atypical given the preceding (and lengthy) discussion about women (on the average) earning less than men (particularly in married couple families). As a matter of fact, in most dual-earner couples, the wife brought home less than half of what her husband did in 1981 — the study year. During the same period, the wife was the primary earner in only about 12 percent of U.S. couples.

However, in a third of these couples, the men had no earnings at all (many were retired). Moreover, a large number of these wives earned more than their husbands only on a short-time basis. Their spouses may have been temporarily unemployed, in school, or ill — leading one to believe the number of women who make up the "hard-core" of primary earners is probably much less than these figures indicate.[36]

But why do some women consistently out-earn their husbands? Two views are generally purported to explain this phenomenon (both stereotypical). One is the "super star" wife theory–stressing the wife's occupational attainments. The other is the "underachieving" husband theory–stressing how the man's lack of ability (or initiative) accounts for the wife's fatter paycheck.

The study brought out that over half of the husbands who were secondary earners in 1981 worked either part-time or were employed only part of the year. It could ask whether these husbands earned less because of poor economic conditions, or because they felt less pressure because their wives were bringing home a paycheck.

THE NOUVEAU POOR – Low Pay and Welfare

Nearly one-third of Utah's female-headed families lived below the poverty line in 1979. Over 40 percent of the children under 18 belonging to female householders lived in poverty in 1979. These figures shock, startle, and distress most of the State's inhabitants, if not on humanitarian grounds, because of the increased social services (welfare) outlays.

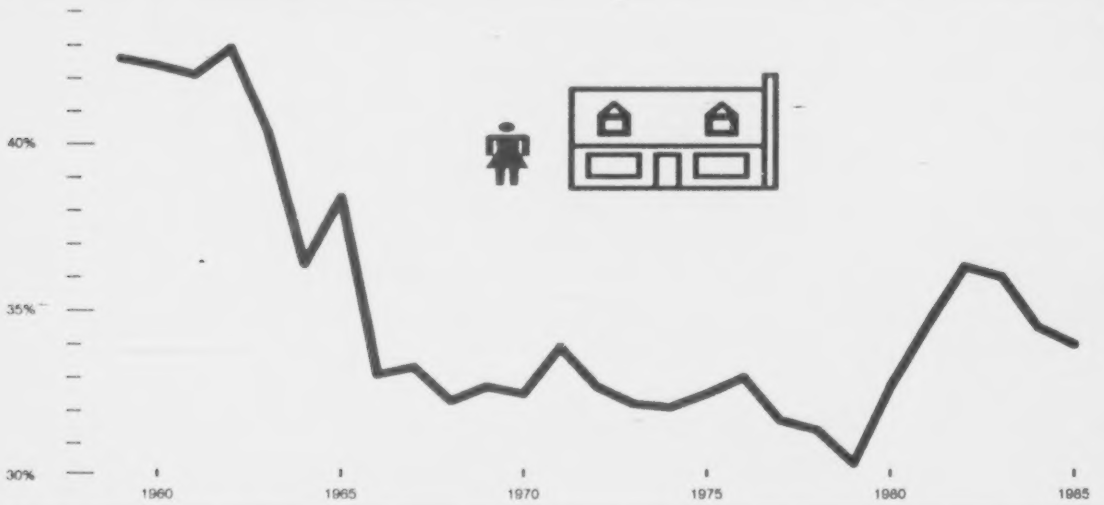
Compare these figures to those for male-headed families–only 6 percent of families headed by men had incomes which fell below the poverty level. Not only are female-headed households at greater risk of joining the ranks of the poor, but women in general are more likely to have poverty level incomes than are men.

Census figures show 11.6 percent of Utah females received incomes below the poverty standard while only 9.0 percent of males fell in this category. In all age groups (except for persons under the age of 16) women outnumber men in poverty. The problem is particularly acute for women 16 to 21 years. Almost one-fifth of women in this age group make up a part of the poverty population, reflecting increasing numbers of young unwed mothers.

Although poverty is not quite as pronounced in Utah as it is in the rest of the U.S., State poverty trends reflect those nationwide. However, poverty for women in Utah concentrates at younger age levels, which no doubt partially reflects Utah's younger population.

POVERTY RATES FOR FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS HAVE DECLINED

Chart 8. U.S. Poverty Rates for Female-Headed Households, 1960-1985



A PREDICTION

The National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity has predicted: "All other things being equal, if the proportion of the poor in female-householder families were to continue to increase at the same rate as it did from 1967 to 1978, the poverty population would be composed solely of women and their children before the year 2000."[37] This type of prediction, which seems totally ignorant of trend and growth patterns, tends to be inflammatory rather than accurate. However, it points out the increasing problem of the "feminization of poverty."

Whether through divorce, desertion, or death, an estimated 85 percent of American women can expect to have to support themselves (if not themselves and their children) at some time in their lives. Many of these women will find themselves within the ranks of the poor.

Isabel Sawhill calculated (1970), 31 percent of all occupations paid poverty-level wages to a white female high school graduate who worked all year; and 54 percent of all occupations filled

WOMEN IN POVERTY

Table 16. United States Share of Female Headed Households in Poverty, 1960-1985

FEMALE HEADED HOUSEHOLDS	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
Poverty Rate	42.4	38.4	32.5	32.5	32.7	34.0
Share of All Poor Families	23.7	28.5	37.1	44.6	47.8	48.1

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

predominantly by females paid wages this low.[38] Andrew Cherlin of Johns Hopkins University has said, "A large number of studies have made it unclear that the absence of the father was directly responsible for any of the supposed deficiencies of broken homes." The problem, he thinks, is not the lack of a male presence, but the lack of a male income.[39]

MINIMAL CHILD SUPPORT

More than half of the mothers rasing children on their own do so without any financial help from the fathers. These fathers are either unable to be found or refuse to pay when located. Estimates are that only three-fifths of women with dependent children have been awarded or have an agreement to receive child support. Of those three-fifths, only one-half received the full amount to which they were entitled during 1978 and 28 percent received no payment at all.[40] Moreover, as inflation has grown, the amounts awarded have often dwindled in real terms. Studies show that about 13 percent of poverty-level, female head-of-household families would not be poor if absent fathers made the child support payments awarded or agreed to.[41]

Young unmarried mothers make up a large portion of the poor. Although fertility among teenagers is actually dropping (like the fertility rate in general), pregnant teenagers are less likely to get married or give their babies up for adoption than before. Mothers who married young or not at all are usually ill-equipped to find jobs which pay enough to support themselves and their children, particularly in a society which generally pays women less than men.

MINIMAL EDUCATION

A March 1983 study found almost one-fourth of U.S. working women who maintained families had not completed high school compared with 15 percent of working wives. Women with children under the age of six are limited by the high cost child care and the additional problems associated with raising children with only one parent. The same survey found the unemployment rate for mothers with pre-schoolers was 23 percent compared with 15 percent for mothers whose youngest child was at least school age.[42]

However, women maintaining families do show a very strong commitment to the labor force. Seventy-five percent of mothers maintaining families whose youngest child was school age participated in the work force.

Other women who face income problems are "displaced homemakers" – divorced, deserted, or widowed women whose children are over 18, thus making them ineligible for Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Many times, these women have been out of the labor force and out of school for many years and have few visible, marketable job skills. Women aged 65 and older also make up a large share of impoverished females.

IN CONCLUSION – The Last Word

In the last three decades, women have averaged only 60 percent of their male counterpart's earnings. Data suggest this pay gap may be slightly wider for Utah women. Nonetheless, the gap has narrowed in recent years. However, regardless of education, experience, or occupation women average less earnings than men. Even so, they contributed substantially to their family's income.

Researchers and nonresearchers advance many explanations for the wage differential including differences in work history, educational content, occupation, marital patterns, and productivity. However, no reliable research has been able to account for more than 70 percent of the gap based on these characteristics. This fact points to the existence of some sort of institutionalized discrimination against woman but does not prove it. Moreover, the female/male wage differential, the fact that many women lack the skills to obtain a good job, and the increased numbers of women who are heads of families without male support, have led to increased poverty among women and their children.

CHAPTER 5
MISCELLANEOUS

Working it Out

"That great events are about to transpire in which women will perform an active and important revolutionary part we are not afraid to predict. The great question is, is she preparing herself for the position she is destined to occupy and the work which will consequently devolve upon her?"

Emmeline B. Wells
Editor of Utah's *The Woman's Exponent*, 1880

CHAPTER 5

MISCELLANEOUS

Working it out

What problems have women faced as they have moved into the labor force at increasing rates? This section deals with a few female employment-related issues not specifically covered before – things like health, child care, and family relations. This chapter will also examine what the future for women in the work force might be.

CHILD CARE – What's a Mother to Do?

Working mothers usually require some type of child care for their children particularly those under school-age. In fact, the cost and quality of child care is a major concern to most working parents. In a recent survey conducted by Utah Issues, 68 percent of the unemployed respondents answered that they would work if adequate, low cost child care were available. The income of three-fourths of this group fell below $10,000.

While this survey does not thoroughly represent the State, it does provide a feeling for what child care needs exist and what resources Utah parents use to meet those needs. This particular study found, that of the respondents now using child care, over half used child care centers, just under a fourth had their children taken care of by a relative, and about an equal number used family day care homes ("babysitters," licensed or unlicensed).

Over 70 percent of these individuals reported contentment with their current child care arrangements. Most negative comments centered on factors not related to the actual care of the child (like cost). However, a significant number of parents expressed displeasure with the care their children were receiving.[1]

Studies cited by David Bloom, a Columbia University labor economist, show that about one-fifth of mothers with preschool children either aren't working as much as they would like or don't work at all because they can't find good, affordable child care.[2]

A nationwide survey on child care arrangements of working mothers conducted in June 1982 produced the following findings:

- At the time of the survey 15 percent of employed mothers primarily used group care services for their youngest child (under 5 years old) – an increase of 2 percent from a similar survey conducted in 1977.
- Black women, women whose youngest child was at least three years old, well-educated women, and women working full-time were more likely to use group child care services.
- Parents of the child provided care in 23 percent of the cases; 14 percent used the father as principal caretaker, while 9 percent of the mothers cared for the child herself while she was working.
- Twenty-four percent of the fathers who provided principal care were unemployed and 5 percent were not in the labor force at all.
- The child's grandparent furnished care for the youngest pre-school age child, while other relatives provided another 12 percent of the child's supervision when the mother worked. Among unmarried mothers, relatives supplied 40 percent of the child care.
- Approximately 17 percent of all employed mothers used more than one type of care arrangement for the youngest child under five years old. When a father's care in the home was the principal arrangement, 28 percent used multiple care.

- Among mothers of young children not currently in the labor force, the study found that 36 percent of those with family incomes below $15,000 said they would look for work if reasonably priced child care were available compared with 13 percent with incomes of $25,000 or more. The study also revealed that some women have selected part-time work because of the difficulties of arranging for child care.[3]

Statistics from the Utah Department of Social Services indicate that in 1984 there were 140 licensed child day care centers and 1,400 licensed family day care homes. These licensed facilities cared for roughly 15,000 Utah children.[4]

THE PROBLEM

Jessie Looslie of the Professional Child Care Association has indicated that child care for infants is almost nonexistent in Utah. Regulations limit day care centers to a maximum of four infants per staff member, while family day care providers may only take care of between two and three infants. Regulations are aimed at ensuring quality care, but they often make infant care economically infeasible for many care givers.[5]

For many Utah mothers, child care costs virtually negate the financial gains made through employment outside the home. "Latch-key children"—kids of school-age who come home to

WORKING AND CHILDCARE

Table 17. Utah Children By Age and Parent's Employment Status Percent Distribution, 1982

	PARENTS EMPLOYMENT STATUS		
AGE	WORK	DO NOT WORK	WOULD WORK IF CHILD CARE AVAILABLE
0-1 Year	53	47	31
2-5 Years	72	28	22
6-9 Years	65	35	23
10-14 Years	69	31	17

NOTE: Employment status pertains only to parent who completed the survey form.

SOURCE: Utah Issues.

empty houses to fend for themselves – also present a special problem. Working mothers must also find some additional provider of child care during the summer when school is out.

WHAT ABOUT GOVERNMENT?

Government has been slow in helping to alleviate the child care problem. Feminist Betty Friedan has commented, "We are one of the few developed nations in the world that do not have serious child care programs."[6] Many day care bills/laws have failed to pass the national legislature and the child care income tax credit and federal programs provide only limited help to Aid to Families With Dependent Children parents.

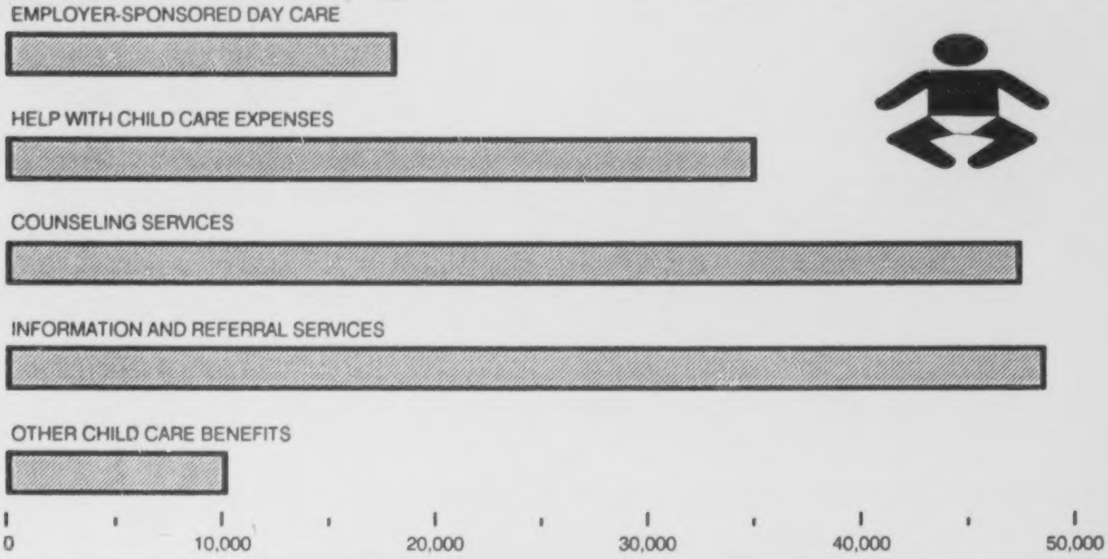
Some communities are working together to help solve child care difficulties. Several school districts throughout the country provide extended care for school-age children by offering before and after school instruction in such areas as ballet and computer programming at a reasonable cost. Other schools have instituted day care programs which also provide services during school vacations and early/late in the day or night. A 1986 survey of 1,200 school districts by Bank Street College of Education and Wellesley College found 8 percent with programs for four year-olds that are geared to child-care needs over the full school day.

Edward Zigler, a professor of psychology and co-founder of the national Head Start program, has proposed a plan which would establish two systems in existing public school buildings – one for formal education and one for child care. There would be child care for children ages three to 12 before and after regular school hours and during school vacations. Children ages three and four would be only in child care, not formal schooling. Mr Zigler envisions sliding fees based on income until enough women are working so that the nation will not be opposed to a tax for child care.[7]

Senator Christopher Dodd has introduced legislation to set a up model child care system in the public schools. The $120 million bill would pay for prototype projects in each state that would provide on-site child care for children between the ages of three and 12, along with other family support.

EMPLOYERS AND CHILDCARE

Chart 1. U.S. Employers Providing Child Care Assistance, 1987



EMPLOYER'S PART

Employer involvement in child care seems to be one possible solution to the dilemma. Whether through in-house day care centers, child care payment vouchers (with "cafeteria benefit plans"), or just providing child care referral services, employers can help working mothers and fathers conquer the problem of adequate child care.

The Employee Benefit Research Institute reports that most businesses are ignoring the changing demographics of the American family. The Institute also found that only 4 to 10 percent of the employees are likely to take advantage of their company's child-care program at a given time.[8]

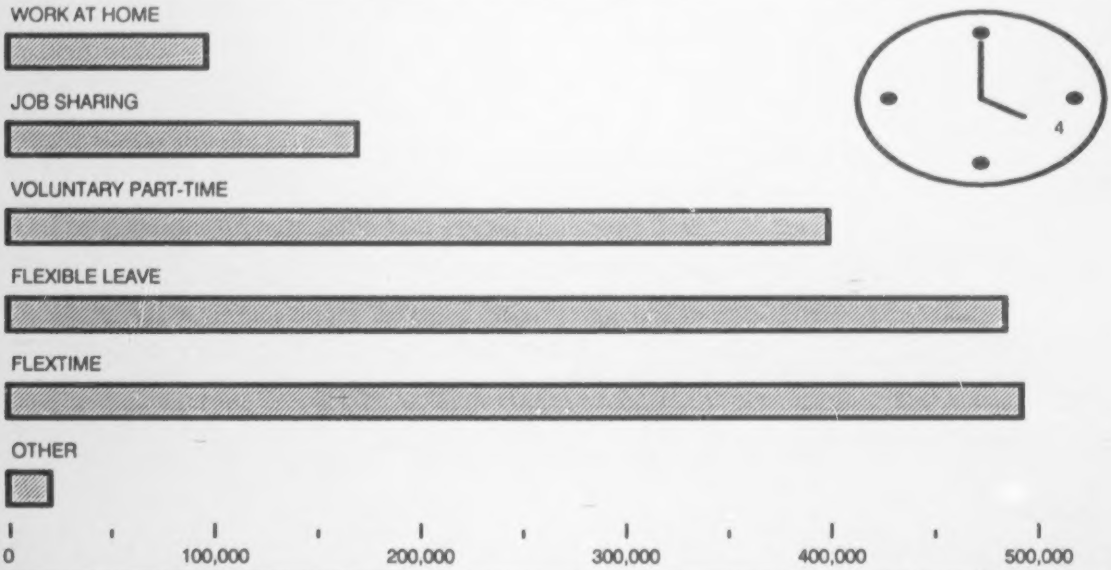
Of the estimated 1.1 million U.S. firms with 10 or more employees, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) figures that about 10 percent offer child-care benefits. However, BLS estimates 61 percent of these firms offer work-schedule assistance such as job sharing and flextime.

Not only do employers attract and keep a higher echelon of employee when they provide child care assistance, but they benefit from less job turnover, lower absenteeism, improved employee attitudes, and better community relations.

- Intermedics reported a 9 percent reduction in employee turnover after six months of employer sponsored child-care and a 37 percent reduction after the second year of operations.
- Intermedics estimates it costs $3,000 to train a new employee and that their child-care program pays for itself.
- After starting its child care program, Vanderbuilt Shirt Factory noted a drop in turnover and absenteeism costs: from $1,000 per year, per employee to a negligible level.

EMPLOYERS AND SCHEDULING

Chart 2. U.S. Employers Providing Work-Schedule Assistance, 1987



- Northside Child Development Center reported that its associate employers experienced an average 21 percent reduction in absenteeism.

- Intermedics noted that they experienced 3,700 fewer hours of absenteeism after just six months of child care program operation and 15,000 fewer hours lost during the first year.

- Intermedics noted an increase in productivity among employees – even employees who were not parents – after their program began. The company believes productivity of nonparents increases because they seldom need to cover the jobs of absent parents.[9]

On-site day care is not the only alternative. Small employers can join together to provide services. Businesses may offer vouchers for licensed day care or provide referral services to nearby care centers. In addition, employers can provide "flextime," allowing parents to work different schedules in order to share in child care.

THE EFFECTS

What effect has nonparental child care had on the offspring of employed mothers? Kristin Moore and Sandra Hofferth have reported: "The overwhelming consensus of different studies is that most children of working mothers seem to develop normally and well." However, children in day care do seem to get more colds and flu and become more aggressive and peer-oriented than other children. Moore and Hofferth report that this may be attributable to "too large a group or too low a ratio of adults to children." They also point out several important factors that impact the effect of a mother's employment outside the home: 1) the quality of the substitute care, 2) whether or not the working mother would really prefer to be at home, 3) whether she works full-time or part-time, and 4) the amount of approval her working receives from her family and the community.[10]

Studies have shown that employed mothers do spend only about half as much time as full-time housewives in the company of their children. However, researchers have found that the quality of the time is more important to the child's development than sheer quantity. They also discovered, contrary to the fears of many, that babies form normal attachments to their working mothers.[11] Children of working mothers do more housework than those of full-time homemakers, and daughters tend to have less traditional views of marriage and sex-roles.

HEALTH--Working Each Day Keeps the Doctor Away

Purveyors of gloom and doom predicted that as women moved into the workplace they would exhibit health patterns similar to those of men--wonderful things like shorter life spans, heart attacks, mid-life breakdowns, etc. After all, it seems logical that work-related pressure might cause women's health to deteriorate. Almost everyone knows that women now live longer than men, but has working outside the home made women prone to more stress-related diseases and death? The evidence shows the answer is a resounding, "No!"

AT LESS RISK

For example, women still sustain about half the risk of developing the nations's leading killer, heart disease, as do men. Moreover, sociologists at the Wellesley College Center for Research on Women found that the incidence of depression in women age 35 to 55 has declined dramatically in the past 10 years.[12]

Data collected from the National Health Interview Survey, suggest that of the three factors examined (employment, marital status and parenthood), employment has by far the most consistent tie to a woman's good health. Marriage came in second, with parenthood a weak third. Researchers found that in nearly every respect working women have better health than women who are out of the labor force. Unhealthy women just plain stay out of the job market accounting for much of the difference. However, employed, married women with or without children experience the best overall health. Also, combining a job with marriage appears to be more health-promoting now than it was in the 1960s according to study findings.[13] Apparently, "involvement in activities that use a woman's skills and education, that offer social contacts and intimacy, and that provide income, probably helps people maintain good health or even improve their health."

SUPERWOMEN AHEAD

Superwomen, who combine the triple roles, of wife, mother, and employee, (not an easy job) win the advantage of good health. The same is true for men, juggling multiple roles is also linked to their good health.[14] However, as noted anthropologist, Ashley Montague, relates, evidence strongly suggests that women have an intrinsic biological superiority over men that is not likely to disappear.

MR. MOM — Does He Do His Share?

Shelley Coverman reports, "For each hour per week wives spend in paid work, husbands' domestic time increases by about five minutes per week." In fact, Ms. Coverman's study indicates that men with nontraditional ideas about sex roles spent slightly less time on domestic chores than did traditional men![15] A survey conducted for *Newsweek* found that only 14 percent of husbands in two-earner families do as much as half the housework, and 60 percent do less than one-fourth.[16] (Perhaps one reason working women have fewer children.)

EMPLOYERS AND CHILDCARE

Table 18. United States Number of Employers Offering Child Care Benefits, 1987

CHILD CARE BENEFITS	
Employer Sponsored Day Care	18,048
Help With Child Care Expenses	34,968
Counseling Services	47,376
Information and Referral Services	48,504
Other Child Care Benefits	10,152
WORK SCHEDULE ASSISTANCE	
Work at Home	95,880
Job Sharing	169,200
Voluntary Part-time	398,184
Flexible Leave	483,912
Flex Time	491,808
Other Policies	20,304

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Joseph Pleck, a clinical psychologist at Wellesley College Center for Research on Women, notes that middle-class liberal males often have a tougher time adjusting their behavior to the new reality of a working wife, while conservative blue-collar workers often make the change more smoothly because they have no choice.[17]

WIVES WORK MOST HOURS

Research conducted by Joann Vanek found that when work is defined as time spent in paid employment plus time spent in household tasks and child care, full-time housewives worked the fewest hours, employed wives the most, and the working hours of married men fell somewhere between. Working mothers with young children put in about 80 hours a week compared with their husband's 65 hours a week.[18]

The conclusion of John Mirowsky and Catherine Ross of the University of Illinois sums things up, "In adapting to the wife's employment, the central problem for husbands seems to be one of self-esteem – of getting over any embarrassment, guilt, or apprehension associated with the wife's employment. For wives, the central problem is getting the husband to share the housework."[19]

HOUSEWORK AND DIVORCE

Joan Huber and Glenna Spitze found that women who think that husband and wife should divide housework equally when both work full-time are more likely to have considered divorce. They also discovered that the chance that a wife has thought of divorce decreases with each additional task the husband performs at least half the time. Moreover, both spouses in marriages where household duties are more equitably distributed experience less incidence of depression.[20]

One happy note for future wives – mothers are eliminating sexual stereotypes when assigning chores to children. In 1974, a survey conducted by the Roper Organization found that only 39 of the women polled would ask either boys or girls to mend their own clothes. By 1980, 56 percent responded that they would ask either child – and this task was the chore least likely to be evenly assigned.[21] Household duties may no longer be seen by the upcoming generation of men as "woman's work." Trends do imply that most marriages are shifting toward more equitable relationships where both spouses share household chores.

THE GOOD LIFE

Table 19. United States Perceived Ideal Lifestyle by Age,1975 and 1982

		PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION						
PERCEIVED IDEAL LIFESTYLE	YEAR	TOTAL	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 +
LIFESTYLE 1								
Be mainly a job holder	1975	5	9	5	5	4	6	6
or career woman	1982	12	16	9	9	12	9	9
LIFESTYLE 2								
Be mainly	1975	22	9	10	21	28	30	40
a homemaker	1982	20	6	11	17	25	28	41
LIFESTYLE 3								
Combine homemaking with career	1975	24	31	27	30	22	17	12
using child care if necessary	1982	22	25	25	24	22	19	25
LIFESTYLE 4								
Stay home with children when young,	1975	49	51	58	44	46	47	42
then combine career and homemaking	1982	46	53	55	50	41	44	25

SOURCE: Market Opinion Research, as reported in American Demographics.

CHILDREN HELP OUT

How do working women with families cope with keeping a house and a job? For one thing, children of working mothers do more housework. Women, who are able to afford it, may hire domestic help. One study found that families with a working mother and father spend 25 percent more in restaurants each year than families where only the father is employed.[22]

Some women cut housework time with labor saving devices such as convenience foods or microwave ovens, while some may relax their cleanliness standards (houses where occupants are out all day take less cleaning than occupied houses). Time studies do show that working women are finding ways to reduce the amount of time spent in household tasks and are managing to devote more time to leisure activities.[23]

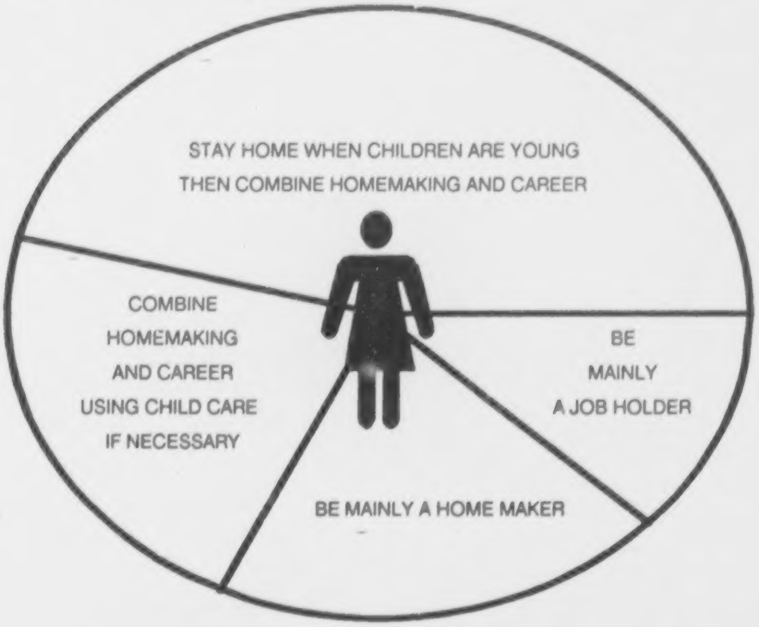
Many people fear that maternal employment may in some way harm the children involved. Moore and Hofferth have noted, "several researchers have reported that sons of working mothers, especially among middle-class families, have lower grades or lower intelligence scores than do the sons of non-working middle-class mothers. Conversely, studies find daughters of working mothers of all classes and sons of lower-class working mothers have better academic performances and higher educational aspirations than do children of non-working mothers."[24]

WOMEN AND PUBLIC POLICY — Blind Justice?

It was not until 1910 that courts in the United States held that legislation regulating the hours and working conditions for women was constitutional. In past years, courts held legislation regulating minimum wages for women to be an abridgment of the individual's right of contract. With the movement of women into industrial jobs at the advent of World War II, the struggle against pay discrimination continued. The National War Labor Board (NWLB) issued several orders setting standards for the correction of maladjustments and inequalities in wages. The board also allowed wages

THE IDEAL LIFESTYLE

Chart 3. U.S. Female Perceived Ideal Lifestyle, 1982



for women to be increased without their approval in order to equalize salaries between men and women for similar jobs.

THE EQUAL PAY ACT

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 prohibited different pay rates in the same establishment for work equivalent in skill, effort, and responsibility. However, the Act permitted pay differentials based on seniority, merit, etc. Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act expanded federal legislation to include the prohibition on unequal treatment based on sex in hiring, firing, promotions, and compensation (such as fringe benefits).

SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Sexual harassment, another form of sex discrimination was also forbidden under Title VII. This piece of legislation banned unwanted conduct or communication of a sexual nature which adversely affected a person's employment relationship or working environment from the work place. Another amendment to Title VII prohibited discrimination based on pregnancy. Utah, itself, passed the Anti-discrimination Act of 1965 which prohibits discrimination based on sex.

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Affirmative Action Executive Orders (first established in 1965 and since amended) require employers to take positive steps in equalizing their treatment of women (and minorities). The orders require employers with federal contracts or sub-contracts to set goals and time-tables for goal accomplishment in order to correct employment imbalances. (Estimates suggest that affirmative action covers one-third of the work force.)[25]

Two pieces of federal legislation attempted to further the rights of women in education. Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments prohibits sex discrimination in all educational programs and activities receiving federal assistance. The Women's Educational Equity Act of 1974 authorizes activities at all levels of education to overcome sex stereo-typing and to achieve equality of women.

A NEW ERA?

The Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) to the U.S. constitution was first introduced to the Congress in 1923 (that's not a typo). The ERA, which would forbid governmental denial or abridgment of equal rights on the basis of sex, finally passed the 92nd Congress in 1972. However, as of June 30, 1982, only 35 states had ratified the amendment – three states short of the necessary number to enact the amendment as law. Utah was one of fifteen states which failed to ratify the amendment. Opposition to the amendment was strong in the State.

ENFORCEMENT

Even with the laws now on the books, enforcement of sexual discrimination legislation is difficult and results appear marginal. Studies in the early 1970s indicated that equal employment opportunity legislation improved the status of black men at the expense of all women.[26] Andrea Beller has argued that the 1972 amendments to Affirmative Action and Title VII only prevented the income gap from widening farther. She believes that this legislation has lowered the chances that men work in mostly male occupations and raised the chances that women do, but has still left the sexes highly segregated into different occupations.[27]

THE FEDS AND TAXES

Federal financial policy also affects a woman's work force experience. The federal income tax system, although originally concocted on the premise of "ability to pay" often provides disincentives for female labor force participation.

The problem occurs partially because the tax system was set up with the traditional working husband, homemaking wife, and dependent children in mind. In spite of efforts to reduce it, a marriage penalty exists due to the nature of the tax system. In other words, two married people pay more tax than they would if they were both single.

The tax system treats two-earner families as equal to one-earner families – both pay the same tax on the same amount of income. However, two-earner families have expenses connected with the wife's employment (child care, transportation, clothes, loss of house-care services) not carried by one-earner families. Two-earner families end up paying a higher amount of net income to the government in the form of taxes thus discouraging female work force participation.

Moreover, in families where both spouses bring home a pay check, Internal Revenue Service taxes the wife's earnings at the highest marginal rate paid by the husband. One researcher argues that the negative relationship between a husband's income and the wife's employment results solely because of the effective tax rate on the wife's income which raises along with the husband's earnings.[28]

SOCIAL SECURITY?

The Social Security system also differentiates between one-earner families. In fact, single-earners and two-earner families actually subsidize families with dependent spouses. Working women married to working men pay the most for the benefits they receive because the Social Security Act guarantees a married woman half of her husbands benefits regardless of her contribution. Often, two-earner families may actually pay more and receive less than one-earner families with the same income.

Various committees and government agencies have been set up by the federal government to study and help resolve women's employment difficulties. In 1982, Scott Matheson, then governor of Utah, created the Task Force on Integrating Women into the Work Force. The governor appointed members of the Task Force from a wide array of businesses, government agencies, and non-profit organizations. In a report issued in 1984, the Task Force made several recommendations calling on business, the legislature, state agencies, and educational institutions to help women get off welfare and into the work force.[29]

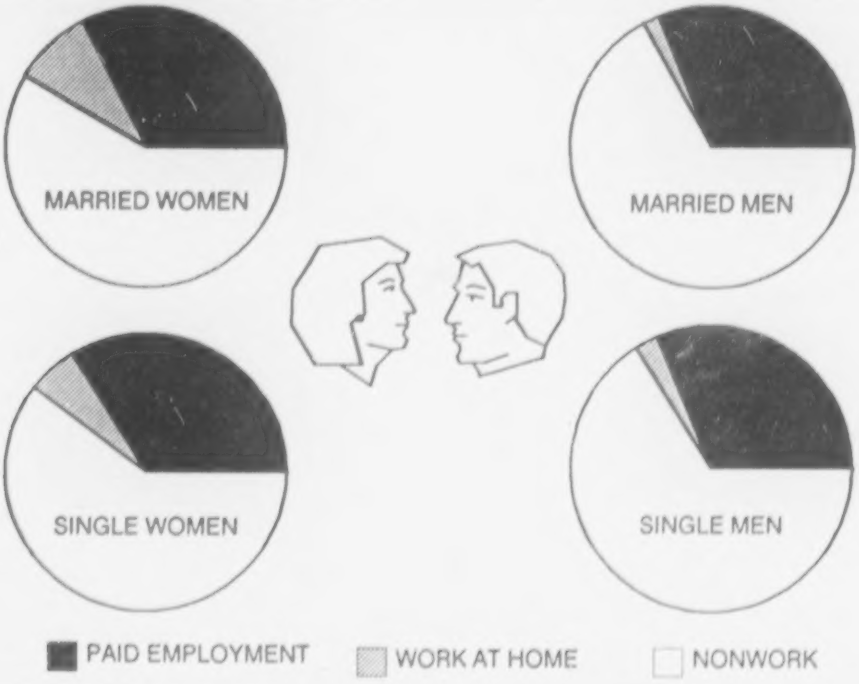
Their suggestions focused on eliminating the barriers to equal pay, increasing training, providing tax credits to businesses, providing adequate child care, and health care benefits. While implementation of these recommendations may appear slow in coming, some progress is being made.

THE SWEDISH EXAMPLE

The Swedish government has forged ahead in integrating its women into the labor force. In 1971, a system of individual taxation

MARRIED WOMEN HAVE THE LONGEST WORK WEEK

Chart 4. U.S. Working Adult Use of Time by Sex and Marital Status, 1980



was adopted under which each individual is taxed separately on their own income. The system of individual taxation in combination with a highly progressive taxation system means that there generally will be a strong economic advantage for a family to have two earners rather than one. The change seems to have contributed to the rapid increase in Swedish female labor force participation rates.

The country has also embarked on an extensive program of building public day care facilities. In 1972, about 37 percent of the children under school-age with mothers who worked half-time or more received care under different public systems.

Many feel that changing the sexual division of the work force requires changing the sexual division of work in the home. The aim is to make it as common for the man to bear the home responsibilities as for the women. A reform with this intention has been the replacement of the previous maternity leave with a parental leave of 8 months. The parents can divide the available time between them as they see fit. There is also a provision with 12 days paid sick leave for the care of sick children that can be used by either parent.[30]

TOMORROW

Of course, no one is sure how female labor force participation will shape up in the future. Different economists present very different predictions. (At times, it is almost embarrassing to be an economist because they can never even agree on the current state of affairs, let alone what will happen tomorrow.) However, nearly everyone believes that women will at least maintain their labor force share.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics, which has historically underestimated the influx of women into the workplace, expects the female labor force participation rate will have increased to 60 percent by the year 2000. Indeed, most economists project the largest employment growth will occur in service sector jobs—jobs which women traditionally fill. The fact that women are joining the labor force at all generates demand for certain services which in turn creates jobs.

On the other hand, Richard Easterlin believes that young women will not continue to join the work force at the current high rates and may even begin leaving their jobs for home and family. He thinks the country may even be in line for another baby boom. Easterlin reasons that as the baby bust generation moves into the labor force there will be a short supply of people to fill positions. Men will be able to obtain fat salaries and their wives may opt to stay home. However, most economists and sociologists expect that families will stay small and women will continue to join the labor force.[31]

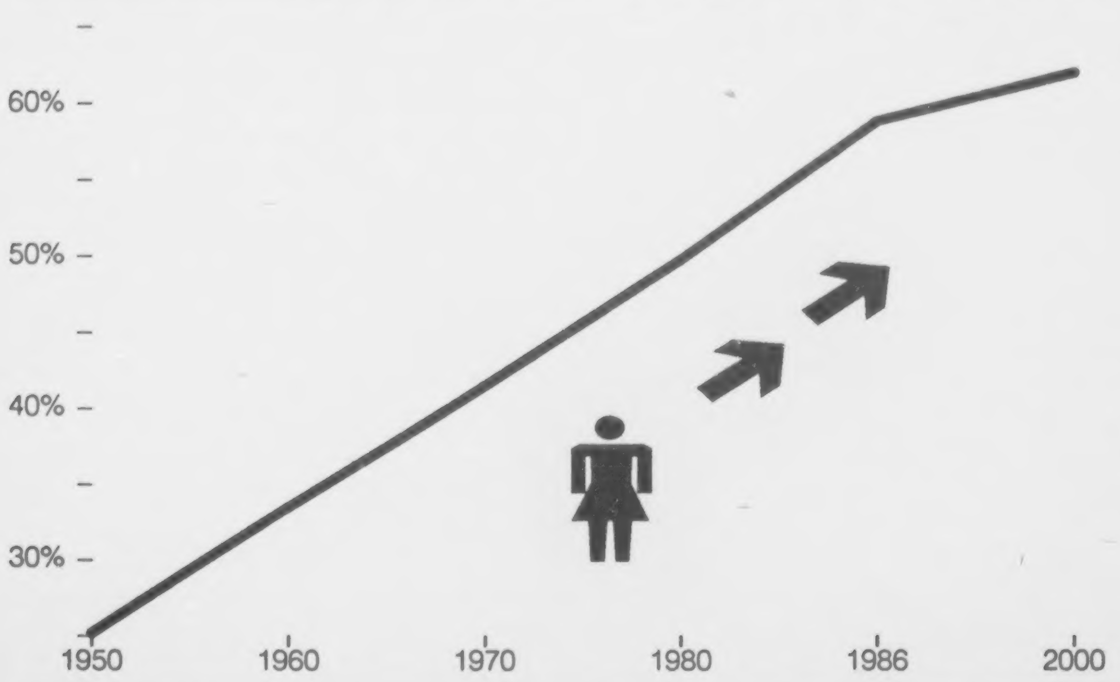
Although female work force participation seems destined to increase, the trends of the past few decades do not indicate that changes within the labor force will be made at a very rapid rate. The great majority of forecasters do not expect female/male wage differentials and occupational segregation to suddenly disappear.

IN UTAH

Obviously, the trends currently in place suggest that the overall participation rate for Utah women is likely to rise. But, how much? It seems unlikely that female participation will climb as precipitously as in the recent past – particularly given the projected age structure of the work force in the year 2000. In other words, the influx of women into the labor force should taper off somewhat. Nevertheless, young women should retain their strong attachment to the labor force. As their age cohorts mature, rates for older groups should increase, generating continued upward pressure on female participation.

WOMEN WILL SLOW THEIR ENTRY INTO THE LABOR FORCE

Chart 5. Utah Female Participation Rates, 1950 - 2000



In the year 2000, Utah women are expected to display a participation rate of 62 percent. That may seem low. After all, Utah's 1987 female participation rate equals nearly 60 percent.

In the intervening years, female participation is expected to exceed the 62 percent mark and then drop back down – not because women will leave the labor force – but because of changes in the age distribution of the population. At 61 percent, women's U.S. projected 2000 participation rate should be slightly lower than Utah's figure.

By the year 2000, as many as two-thirds of Utah's families could have more than one wage earner. Participation is expected to increase for every age category – especially for older age groups. As women age into the upper brackets they are expected to retain their strong attachment to the labor force. Currently, women who have traditionally been homemakers make up a large segment of the upper age groups.

In the year 2000, Utah men are expected to see a slightly lower participation rate than they currently maintain – again as a function of the age distribution and trends toward early retirement. Given these patterns, Utah women are expected to increase their share of the labor force to 45 percent by 2000. Even though national female participation is projected to be lower, due to demographics, U.S. women should make up almost 48 percent of the work force.

THE IMPACTS

With the shift of women from unpaid housework (which is not counted in gross national product) to employment (which is), the Utah and U.S. economies have enjoyed growth. As female labor force expansion tapers off, so may some of this economic growth.

As more dual-earner families come into being, different types of benefits will probably be demanded. Child care will become a family issue rather than a "woman's" issue. Pressures are expected to increase for higher standards in day care, employer subsidization of day care, a lower age for starting public school, federal day care for welfare mothers, "cafeteria-type" benefit plans, and tax subsidies for child care. Also, requests for parental and "sick-child" leave seem destined to increase.

In Utah, almost one in three female labor force participants are part-timers. Many women prefer to work part-time in order to meet familial responsibilities. Therefore, it should come as no surprise that part-time work is gaining a strong foothold in the economy and should continue to do so. Pressures for job sharing, the term used to describe the division of what has been one job into (usually two) portions, will likely continue. Two people rather than one, then, will fill the job and share the benefits. Also, flexible work hours (for both men and women) will be demanded. Inevitably, as more two career families emerge, it seems that hours worked per employee will drop.

Pressures will also likely increase for reform of tax legislation. The federal income tax system, although originally concocted on the premise of "ability to pay" often provides disincentives for female labor force participation. This problem occurs because the tax system was set up with the traditional working husband, homemaking wife and dependent children in mind.

Of course, higher and higher numbers of dual-earner couples may mean that the work force of the year 2000 may lose flexibility. Two career families may be less willing to move. Corporations could be compelled to provide more relocation assistance to spouses. Moreover, this two-career trend may reinforce the rigidity that develops because of aging.

As the women become more integrated into the work force, distinctions of pay and occupation should begin to disappear. Traditional demarcations between the professions should continue to fade, albeit slowly.

Much of what happens will depend on the state of the economy. Recessions and the loss of male jobs may cause a backlash against women who are "taking men's jobs." While perhaps not a totally rational argument, this type of reasoning may hold an appeal to some groups. Enforcement and enactment of equal employment opportunity legislation will also be a factor in the improvement of women's lot in the world of work.

Rapid change appears to be unlikely if only because such large numbers of women exist in the work force already. However, as Linda Waite concludes:

> *But the changes now under way—the shift of women into some jobs in male strongholds, especially in the professions, and the strong commitment many young women now show toward their jobs—hold out promise that women's position in the American work force will eventually improve.*[32]

You've come a long way lady, but you still have a long way to go.

APPENDIX

DEFINITIONS

Birth Rate —The number of resident live births divided by the total resident population – multiplied by 1,000.

Children Ever Born – The number of children ever born to women 15 and over – excludes, stillbirths, stepchildren and adopted children. Children no longer living, and away from home are included in counts.

Civilian Labor Force – All civilians classified as employed or unemployed (see specific definitions). The "labor force" also includes Armed Forces stationed in the United States.

Divorce Rate – The number of resident divorces divided by the total resident population – multiplied by 1,000.

Earnings – Wage or salary income and net income from farm and nonfarm self-employment

Employed Persons – All civilians who, during the survey period, did any work at all as paid employees, in their own business, on their own farm, or who worked 15 hours or more as unpaid workers in an enterprise operated by a member of the family. Employed persons also includes all workers in an enterprise operated by a member of the family. Employed persons also includes all those who were not working but who had jobs or businesses from which they were temporarily absent because of illness, bad weather, vocation, labor-management disputes, or personal reasons, whether or not they were paid for time off or were seeking other jobs. Each employed person is counted only once.

Experienced Civilian Labor Force – The employed and experienced unemployed.

Family – A group of two or more persons residing together who are related by birth, marriage or adoption. Data on earnings of families excludes all those in which there is no wage or salary earner or in which persons maintaining the family are self-employed or in the Armed Services.

Full-Time Labor Force – Persons working on full-time schedules (35 hours or more a week), persons involuntarily working part-time, and unemployed persons seeking full-time jobs.

Household – All persons – related family members and all unrelated persons – who occupy a housing unit.

Householder – The person (or one of the persons) in whose name the housing unit is owned or rented. The term is never applied to either husbands or wives in married couple families but relates only to persons in families maintained by either men or women without a spouse.

Income — Wage and salary income, nonfarm net self-employment income, farm net self-employment income, interest dividend, net royalty or rental income, public assistance or welfare income, Social Security or Railroad Retirement income, and all other types of income. Does not include lump-sum type receipts (such as insurance payment, the value of "in kind" income, employer contributions to pensions, exchange of money between family members, tax refunds, etc.)

Income of Household — The income of the householder and all other persons 15 years and older in the household. Since many households consist of only one person, average household income is usually less than average family income.

Marriage Rate — The number of resident marriages divided by the total reside population — multiplied by 1,000.

Mean — Derived by dividing the sum of values in a particular statistical universe by the number of units in the universe.

Median — The value which divides the particular distribution into two equal parts, one part having values above the median and the other having values below the median.

Not in the Labor Force — Includes all persons who are not classified as employed or unemployed.

Participation Rates — Proportion of the population over 16 years of age in the labor force. "Labor Force Participation Rate" represents the ratio of the labor force (including resident Armed Forces) to the noninstitutional population. "Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate" is the ratio of the civilian labor force to the civilian noninstitutional population.

Part-Time Labor Force — Persons working part-time voluntarily and unemployed persons seeking part-time work.

Persons Income Below Poverty Level. — Persons whose income fell below poverty thresholds determined by the federal government. No attempt has been made to compute poverty-levels on a state level.

Self-Employed Persons — Persons who work for profit or fees in their own business, profession, or trade or operate a farm.

Unpaid Family Workers — Persons working without pay for 15 hours a week or more on a business operated by a member of the household to whom they are related by birth or marriage.

Unemployed Persons — All civilians who had no employment during the survey period, who were available for work, except for temporary illness, and (a) had made specific efforts to find employment sometime during the prior 4 weeks, or (b) were waiting to be recalled to a job from which they had been laid off, or (c) were waiting to report to a new job within 30 days.

Unrelated Individual — A householder living alone or with nonrelative only, or a household member who is not related to the householder, or a person living in group quarters who is not an inmate of an institution.

Wage and Salary Workers — Workers who receive wages, salary, commission, tips, or pay in kind from a private employer or government unit.

Year-Round, Full-Time Workers — Persons 16 years an older who usually worked 35 hours or more per week for 50 to 52 weeks during the year.

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Chart 5	Utah Office of Planning and Budget.
Chart 6	U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Labor Force Participation

Chart 1	U.S. Bureau of the Census; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.
Chart 2	U.S. Bureau of the Census; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.
Chart 3	U.S. Bureau of the Census.
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Occupations

Chart 1	U.S. Bureau of the Census; U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.
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Chart 5	U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Earnings/Income

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TABLE 1.1

Utah Population by Sex and Age, 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980 (Numbers In Thousands)

AGE	1950	1960	1970	1980	Percent Change 1950-1980
TOTAL	**688.9**	**890.6**	**1,059.3**	**1,461.0**	**112.1**
Female	341.2	445.7	536.1	736.3	115.8
Male	347.6	444.9	523.2	724.7	108.5
0-15	242.8	349.9	377.8	486.9	100.5
Female	118.5	171.2	184.8	237.8	100.7
Male	124.3	178.7	193.0	249.1	100.4
16 AND OLDER	446.0	540.7	681.4	974.2	118.4
Female	222.7	274.5	351.2	498.6	123.9
Male	223.3	266.3	330.2	475.6	113.0
16-19	45.2	60.6	92.9	113.7	151.5
Female	23.2	31.0	46.9	57.5	147.8
Male	22.1	29.6	46.0	56.3	154.8
20-24	55.8	60.5	96.0	155.7	179.0
Female	28.5	32.2	50.9	79.8	180.0
Male	27.3	28.3	45.2	75.9	178.0
25-34	105.1	112.7	131.0	241.2	129.5
Female	52.2	56.0	65.9	118.7	127.4
Male	52.9	56.8	65.1	122.5	131.6
35-44	85.9	104.7	106.5	142.6	66.0
Female	42.4	52.3	53.7	71.6	68.9
Male	43.6	52.5	52.8	70.9	62.6
45-54	64.1	83.2	99.4	112.0	74.7
Female	31.2	41.1	50.4	56.7	81.7
Male	32.8	42.0	49.0	55.4	68.9
55-64	47.5	59.0	77.8	99.9	110.3
Female	23.3	29.7	39.7	51.7	121.9
Male	24.2	29.3	38.1	48.2	99.2
65 AND OLDER	42.5	60.0	77.9	109.1	156.7
Female	22.0	32.1	43.8	62.7	185.0
Male	20.4	27.9	34.2	46.4	127.5
MEDIAN AGE	25.1	22.9	23.1	24.2	-3.6
Female	25.1	23.2	23.6	24.5	-2.4
Male	25.0	22.9	22.5	23.8	-4.8

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.2

Utah Population Percentage Distribution by Sex and Age 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980

	1950		1960		1970		1980	
Age	Percent By Sex	Percent By Age	Percent By Sex	Percent By Age	Percent By Sex	Percent By Age	Percent By Sex	Percent By Age
TOTAL	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Female	49.5	100.0	50.0	100.0	50.6	100.0	50.4	100.0
Male	50.5	100.0	50.0	100.0	49.4	100.0	49.6	100.0
0-15	100.0	35.2	100.0	39.3	100.0	35.7	100.0	33.3
Female	48.8	34.7	48.9	38.4	48.9	34.5	48.8	32.3
Male	51.2	34.8	51.1	40.2	51.1	36.9	51.2	34.4
16 AND OLDER	100.0	64.8	100.0	60.7	100.0	64.3	100.0	66.7
Female	49.9	65.3	50.8	61.6	51.5	65.5	51.2	64.7
Male	50.1	64.2	49.2	59.9	48.5	63.1	48.8	65.6
16-19	100.0	6.6	100.0	6.8	100.0	8.8	100.0	7.8
Female	51.3	7.0	51.2	7.0	50.5	8.7	50.6	7.8
Male	48.9	6.7	48.8	6.7	49.5	8.8	49.5	7.8
20-24	100.0	8.1	100.0	6.8	100.0	9.1	100.0	10.7
Female	51.1	8.4	53.2	7.2	53.0	9.5	51.3	10.8
Male	48.9	7.9	46.8	6.4	47.1	8.6	48.7	10.5
25-34	100.0	15.3	100.0	12.7	100.0	12.4	100.0	16.5
Female	49.7	15.3	49.7	12.6	50.3	12.3	49.2	16.1
Male	50.3	15.2	50.3	12.8	49.7	12.4	50.8	16.9
35-44	100.0	12.5	100.0	11.8	100.0	10.1	100.0	9.8
Female	49.3	12.4	49.9	11.7	50.4	10.0	50.2	9.7
Male	50.7	12.5	50.1	11.8	49.6	10.1	49.7	9.8
45-54	100.0	9.3	100.0	9.3	100.0	9.4	100.0	7.7
Female	48.8	9.1	49.5	9.2	50.7	9.4	50.5	7.7
Male	51.2	9.4	50.5	9.4	49.3	9.4	49.5	7.6
55-64	100.0	6.9	100.0	6.6	100.0	7.3	100.0	6.8
Female	49.1	6.8	50.3	6.7	51.0	7.4	51.8	7.0
Male	50.9	7.0	49.7	6.6	49.0	7.3	48.2	6.7
65 AND OLDER	100.0	6.2	100.0	6.7	100.0	7.4	100.0	7.5
Female	51.9	6.4	53.5	7.2	56.2	8.2	57.5	8.5
Male	48.1	5.9	46.5	6.3	43.9	6.5	42.5	6.4

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.3

United States Population By Age And Sex 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980 (Numbers In Thousands)

AGE	1950	1960	1970	1980	Percent Change 1950-1980
TOTAL	151,325.8	179,325.7	203,210.2	226,545.8	49.7
Female	76,139.2	91,022.6	104,328.4	116,498.3	53.0
Male	75,186.6	88,303.1	98,881.7	110,047.5	46.4
0-15	43,091.2	58,599.3	62,122.9	55,331.5	26.0
Female	21,147.8	28,773.6	30,476.6	27,015.6	27.7
Male	22,753.4	29,235.7	31,646.2	28,315.4	24.4
16 AND OLDER	107,424.6	120,726.4	141,087.3	171,214.3	59.4
Female	54,991.4	62,249.0	73,851.8	89,482.7	62.7
Male	52,433.2	58,477.4	67,235.5	81,732.1	55.9
16-19	8,543.8	10,485.2	15,082.0	17,084.8	100.0
Female	4,277.6	5,221.5	7,471.2	8,408.4	96.6
Male	4,266.2	5,263.7	7,611.9	8,676.3	103.4
20-24	11,410.4	10,803.2	16,104.7	21,293.8	86.6
Female	5,869.9	5,519.9	8,351.0	10,654.5	81.5
Male	5,540.5	5,283.2	7,753.9	10,639.3	92.0
25-34	23,612.2	22,822.1	24,845.9	37,181.4	57.5
Female	12,158.0	11,648.5	12,678.1	18,747.2	54.2
Male	11,454.2	11,173.6	12,167.8	18,434.1	60.9
35-44	21,246.2	24,075.5	23,132.8	25,637.6	20.7
Female	10,847.5	12,336.3	11,864.1	13,067.3	20.5
Male	10,398.7	11,739.2	11,268.7	12,570.2	20.9
45-54	17,183.9	20,625.4	23,158.5	22,732.2	32.3
Female	8,687.8	10,485.7	11,986.2	11,775.2	35.5
Male	8,496.1	10,139.7	11,172.3	10,957.1	29.0
55-64	13,183.4	15,707.8	18,660.2	21,786.1	65.3
Female	6,636.2	8,138.7	9,836.8	11,593.7	74.7
Male	6,547.3	7,569.2	8,823.4	10,192.4	55.7
65 AND OLDER	12,244.7	16,207.2	20,101.9	25,498.4	108.2
Female	6,514.5	8,898.3	11,664.2	15,235.8	133.9
Male	5,730.2	7,309.0	8,437.6	10,262.6	79.1
MEDIAN AGE	30.1	29.4	27.9	30.0	-0.3
Female	30.5	30.3	29.2	31.3	2.6
Male	29.7	28.5	26.6	28.8	-3.0

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.4

United States Population Percentage Distribution by Sex and Age, 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980

	1950		1960		1970		1980	
	Percent By Sex	Percent By Age	Percent By Sex	Percent By Age	Percent By Sex	Percent By Age	Percent By Sex	Percent By Age
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Female	50.3	100.0	50.8	100.0	51.3	100.0	51.4	100.0
Male	49.7	100.0	50.8	100.0	51.3	100.0	51.4	100.0
0-15	100.0	29.0	100.0	32.7	100.0	30.6	100.0	24.4
Female	48.2	27.8	49.1	31.6	49.1	29.2	48.8	23.2
Male	51.8	30.3	50.9	33.8	50.9	32.0	51.2	25.7
16 AND OLDER	100.0	71.0	100.0	67.3	100.0	69.4	100.0	75.6
Female	51.2	72.2	51.6	68.4	52.3	70.8	52.5	76.8
Male	48.8	69.7	48.4	66.2	47.7	68.0	47.7	74.3
16-19	100.0	5.6	100.0	5.8	100.0	7.4	100.0	7.5
Female	50.1	5.6	49.8	5.7	49.5	7.2	49.2	7.2
Male	49.9	5.7	50.2	6.0	50.5	7.7	50.8	7.9
20-24	100.0	7.5	100.0	6.0	100.0	7.9	100.0	9.4
Female	51.4	7.7	51.1	6.1	51.9	8.0	50.0	9.1
Male	48.6	7.4	48.9	6.0	48.1	7.8	50.0	9.7
25-34	100.0	15.6	100.0	12.7	100.0	12.2	100.0	16.4
Female	51.5	16.0	51.0	12.8	51.0	12.2	50.4	16.1
Male	48.5	15.2	49.0	12.7	49.0	12.3	49.6	16.8
35-44	100.0	14.0	100.0	13.4	100.0	11.4	100.0	11.3
Female	51.1	14.2	51.2	13.6	51.3	11.4	51.0	11.2
Male	48.9	13.8	48.8	13.3	48.7	11.4	49.0	11.4
45-54	100.0	11.4	100.0	11.5	100.0	11.4	100.0	10.0
Female	50.6	11.4	50.8	11.5	51.8	11.5	51.8	10.1
Male	49.4	11.3	49.2	11.5	48.2	11.3	48.2	10.0
55-64	100.0	8.7	100.0	8.8	100.0	9.2	100.0	9.6
Female	50.3	8.7	51.8	8.9	52.7	9.4	53.2	10.0
Male	49.7	8.7	48.2	8.6	47.3	8.9	46.8	9.3
65 AND OLDER	100.0	8.1	100.0	9.09	100.0	9.9	100.0	11.3
Female	53.2	8.6	54.9	9.8	58.0	11.2	59.8	13.1
Male	46.8	7.6	45.1	8.3	42.0	8.5	40.2	9.3

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.5

Utah and United States Percent Distribution of Individuals 16-64 Years by Age And Sex 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980

	Percent Of Population 16-64			
	1950	1960	1970	1980
UTAH				
PERCENT BY AGE	58.6	54.0	57.0	59.2
Female	58.8	54.4	57.3	59.2
Male	58.4	53.6	56.6	59.2
PERCENT BY SEX	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Female	49.7	50.4	50.9	50.4
Male	50.3	49.6	49.0	49.6
UNITED STATES				
PERCENT BY AGE	62.9	58.3	59.5	64.3
Female	63.7	58.6	59.6	63.7
Male	62.1	57.9	59.5	64.9
PERCENT BY SEX	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Female	50.9	51.0	51.4	51.0
Male	49.1	49.0	48.6	49.0

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.6

Utah and United States Birth, Marriage, and Divorce Rates,1950-1984

	Birth Rate		Marriage Rate		Divorce & Annulment Rate	
Year	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.
1950	30.4	23.6	10.2	11.1	3.0	2.6
1951	32.2	24.5	9.7	10.4	3.2	2.5
1952	32.8	24.7	9.3	9.9	3.2	2.5
1953	31.9	24.7	9.4	9.8	3.3	2.5
1954	32.4	24.9	8.4	9.2	2.9	2.4
1955	31.4	24.6	8.0	9.3	2.6	2.3
1956	30.9	24.9	8.2	9.5	2.7	2.3
1957	31.6	25.0	8.1	8.9	1.9	2.2
1958	30.0	24.3	7.8	8.4	2.4	2.1
1959	29.5	24.0	7.7	8.5	2.5	2.2
1960	29.2	23.7	7.9	8.5	2.4	2.2
1961	28.4	23.3	7.9	8.5	2.5	2.3
1962	27.4	22.4	8.0	8.5	2.6	2.2
1963	25.6	21.7	8.4	8.8	2.7	2.3
1964	24.4	21.0	8.7	9.0	3.0	2.4
1965	22.5	19.4	8.8	9.3	2.9	2.5
1966	22.4	18.4	9.5	9.4	3.1	2.5
1967	22.5	17.8	10.0	9.7	3.2	2.6
1968	22.5	17.5	11.2	10.4	3.3	2.9
1969	23.1	17.8	11.1	10.6	3.7	3.2
1970	25.3	18.7	11.2	10.7	3.7	3.5
1971	25.0	17.0	11.3	10.6	4.0	3.7
1972	23.7	15.6	12.2	11.0	43.	4.0
1973	23.9	14.8	12.7	10.8	4.4	4.3
1974	25.0	14.8	12.7	10.5	4.7	4.6
1975	25.7	14.6	12.0	10.0	5.0	4.8
1976	27.8	14.6	11.5	9.9	4.9	5.0
1977	28.8	15.1	11.4	9.9	5.3	5.0
1978	28.5	15.0	12.1	10.3	5.3	5.1
1979	29.0	15.6	11.8	10.4	5.1	5.3
1980	28.3	15.9	11.6	10.6	5.4	5.2
1981	27.3	1538	12.1	10.6	5.5	5.3
1982	26.2	15.9	11.8	10.8	5.3	5.1
1983	24.7	15.5	11.6	10.5	5.3	5.0
1984	23.6	15.5	11.1	10.5	5.1	4.9

Note: Rates are Per 1,000 Population.

SOURCE: Utah Department of Health, Office of Management Planning.

TABLE 1.7

Utah Marital Status by Sex Persons 15 and Older, 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980 (Numbers in Thousands)

Marital Status	1950[1]		1960		1970		1980		Percentage Point Change 1950-1980
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
TOTAL	488.9	100.0	556.7	100.0	705.8	100.0	947.8	100.0	0.0
Female	234.9	100.0	282.7	100.0	302.9	100.0	461.6	100.0	0.0
Male	234.0	100.0	274.0	100.0	342.9	100.0	486.2	100.0	0.0
Single	104.9	22.4	111.2	20.0	174.2	24.7	229.5	24.2	1.8
Female	44.7	19.0	49.0	17.3	80.3	22.1	104.5	21.5	2.5
Male	60.1	25.7	62.2	22.7	93.9	27.4	125.0	27.1	1.4
Married, Except Separated	332.8	68.9	395.4	71.0	463.4	65.7	607.7	64.1	-4.8
Female	162.0	69.0	197.3	69.8	232.2	64.0	303.7	62.5	-6.5
Male	160.8	68.7	198.1	72.3	231.3	67.5	304.1	65.9	-2.8
Separated	3.0	0.6	3.5	0.6	5.5	0.8	9.5	1.0	0.4
Female	1.5	0.6	1.9	0.6	3.2	0.9	5.4	1.1	0.5
Male	1.5	0.6	1.6	0.6	2.2	0.7	4.1	0.9	0.3
Widowed	27.5	5.9	32.8	5.9	39.6	5.6	47.3	5.0	-0.9
Female	21.1	9.0	26.7	9.4	333.3	9.2	40.6	8.6	-0.7
Male	6.4	2.7	6.1	2.2	6.3	1.8	6.7	1.5	-1.2
Divorced	10.7	2.3	13.8	2.5	23.0	3.3	53.7	5.7	3.4
Female	5.5	2.3	7.9	2.8	13.9	3.8	31.9	6.6	4.3
Male	5.1	2.2	5.9	2.2	9.1	2.7	21.8	4.7	2.5

[1] Data for Persons 14 and Older.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.8

United States Marital Status by Sex, Persons 15 and Older, 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980 (Numbers in Thousands)

Marital Status	1950[1]		1960		1970		1980		% Point Change 1950-80
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
TOTAL	10,566.0	100.0	123,528.7	100.0	145,210.1	100.0	175,307.6	100.0	0.0
Female	56,054.9	100.0	63,616.1	100.0	75,861.0	100.0	94,482.7	100.0	0.0
Male	53,511.1	100.0	59,912.6	100.0	69,349.1	100.0	83,825.0	100.0	0.0
Single	23,698.2	21.6	24,909.5	20.2	33,919.6	23.4	45,814.9	26.1	4.5
Female	10,378.7	18.5	10,990.1	17.3	15,604.4	20.6	20,927.3	22.9	4.4
Male	13,319.5	24.9	13,919.4	23.2	18,315.2	26.4	24,887.6	29.7	4.8
Married, Except Separated	72,410.4	66.1	83,324.1	67.5	91,843.0	63.2	101,356.3	57.8	-8.3
Female	36,401.7	64.9	41,574.3	65.4	45,906.4	60.5	50,492.1	55.2	-9.7
Male	36,008.7	67.3	41,749.7	69.7	45,936.6	66.2	50,864.2	60.7	-6.6
Separated	2,018.8	1.8	2,189.6	1.8	2,782.0	1.9	3,921.7	2.2	0.4
Female	1,168.1	2.1	1,316.7	2.1	1,738.0	2.3	2,358.6	2.6	0.5
Male	850.7	1.6	872.9	1.5	1044.0	1.5	1563.1	1.9	0.3
Widowed	8,995.9	8.2	9,952.0	8.1	11,738.4	8.1	13,345.2	7.6	-0.6
Female	6,733.7	12.0	7,880.2	12.4	9,609.9	12.7	11,240.4	12.3	0.3
Male	2,262.2	4.2	2071.7	3.5	2,128.5	3.1	2,104.8	2.5	-1.7
Divorced	2,442.7	2.2	3,153.5	2.6	4,927.1	3.4	10,869.5	6.2	4.0
Female	1,372.7	2.4	1,854.7	2.9	3,002.3	4.0	6,464.2	7.1	4.7
Male	1,070.0	2.0	1,298.8	2.2	1,924.8	2.8	4,405.3	5.3	3.3

[1] Data for Persons 14 and Older.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.9

Utah And United States Number of Families and Persons Per Family, 1960, 1970, and 1980

	1960	1970	1980
UTAH			
Number of Families	209,373	249,741	354,171
Persons Per Family	3.99	3.88	3.66
UNITED STATES			
Number of Families	45,128,397	51,168,599	59,190,133
Persons Per Family	3.65	3.57	3.27

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.10

Utah and United States Children Ever Born Per 1,000 Women, 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980

	Children Ever Born Per 1,000 WOMEN							
	1950[1]		1960		1970		1980	
Age	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.
Women 15-44	1,728	1,395	2,087	1,746	1,798	1,619	1,658	1,302
Ever-married	2,242	1,859	2,780	2,314	2,692	2,360	2,390	1,927
Women 15-24	516	438	592	540	344	360	426	31
Ever-married	1,061	993	1,378	1,304	972	995	1,018	855
Women 25-34	2,155	1,646	2,795	2,236	2,577	2,138	2,088	1,476
Ever-married	2,279	1,854	2,954	2,447	2,766	2,374	2,338	1,688
Women 35-44	2,925	2,113	3,360	2,468	3,787	2,956	3,515	2,639
Ever-married	3,065	2,302	3,435	2,627	3,927	3,132	3,637	2,767

[1] U.S. figures excludes data for Alaska and Hawaii.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.11

Utah and United States High School and College Graduates by Sex, Percentage Distribution 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980

	Percent High School Graduates				Percent Completed 4 Or More Years College			
	1950	1960	1970	1980	1950	1960	1970	1980
UTAH								
Total 14 & Older	–	–	60.8	73.9	–	–	10.4	15.0
Female	–	–	61.7	73.9	–	–	7.7	11.4
Male	–	–	59.8	73.9	–	–	13.3	18.8
14-19 Years	–	–	20.5	28.3	–	–	–	–
Female	–	–	23.3	31.0	–	–	–	–
Male	–	–	17.7	25.5	–	–	–	–
20-24 Years	–	–	87.3	86.8	–	–	7.6	6.4
Female	–	–	87.0	87.7	–	–	8.6	7.6
Male	–	–	87.6	86.0	–	–	6.4	5.1
25 Years & Over	49.9	55.8	67.3	80.0	7.8	10.2	14.0	19.9
Female	51.5	56.8	67.3	79.1	6.0	7.1	9.6	14.5
Male	48.3	54.9	67.2	81.0	9.5	13.4	18.6	25.5
UNITED STATES								
Total 14 & Older	33.4	39.9	50.0	63.5	5.2	6.5	8.8	13.4
Female	35.5	41.5	50.8	63.6	4.4	5.0	6.9	11.0
Male	31.3	38.2	49.1	63.4	6.0	8.1	10.9	16.0
14-19 Years	16.9	16.8	19.2	25.8	–	–	–	–
Female	19.1	18.6	20.7	28.0	0.1	–	–	–
Male	14.7	15.1	17.7	23.7	–	–	–	–
20-24 Years	52.4	63.6	78.7	82.2	4.4	5.6	8.9	8.9
Female	55.9	65.2	78.9	83.6	4.5	4.9	8.3	9.3
Male	48.8	61.9	78.4	80.8	4.4	6.4	9.6	8.6
25 Years & over	33.4	41.1	52.3	66.5	6.0	7.7	10.7	16.2
Female	35.1	42.5	52.8	65.8	5.0	5.8	8.1	12.8
Male	31.5	39.5	48.4	67.3	7.1	9.7	13.5	20.1

NOTE: 1980 data includes information for those 15 and older.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 1.12

Utah Female College Enrollment by Year Percent Distribution by Sex and Age, 1980

	College Enrollment By Year						
	Total	1	2	3	4	5 or 6	7 or More
FEMALE SHARE OF TOTAL ENROLLMENT	43.8	48.9	45.3	43.1	42.7	39.8	27.1
15-17 Years	51.4	54.1	30.6	—	—	—	—
18-19 Years	58.9	55.1	68.6	78.5	81.5	—	—
20-24 Years	41.0	31.3	35.6	45.0	47.1	46.3	27.5
25-34 Years	32.9	45.0	39.8	30.7	29.8	32.8	22.3
35-44 Years	53.6	73.8	57.8	50.4	57.4	45.0	34.3
45-54 Years	55.4	72.8	52.5	65.3	56.2	51.3	37.3
55-64 Years	56.6	66.2	49.6	50.8	65.5	57.9	38.6
65 and Older	59.8	75.0	60.1	44.6	60.8	47.0	60.7
FEMALE DISTRIBUTION BY AGE	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
15-17 Years	0.4	1.2	0.1	—	—	—	—
18-19 Years	25.2	60.2	32.4	4.5	0.3	—	—
20-24 Years	40.5	16.6	41.5	70.9	60.4	30.7	3.9
25-34 Years	19.9	11.4	14.6	16.2	23.4	43.7	53.0
35-44 Years	8.2	6.3	7.1	4.9	8.5	14.6	26.0
45-54 Years	3.7	2.7	2.7	2.6	4.1	7.0	10.9
55-64 Years	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.4	1.9	3.1	3.7
65 and Over	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.5	1.4	0.9	2.5

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.1

Utah Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate by Sex and Age Annual Averages,1981-1987

AGE	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
16 and older	65.4	66.3	66.2	67.0	68.7	70.0	69.7
Female	50.8	52.8	52.3	54.4	56.4	58.9	59.9
Male	80.9	80.5	81.3	80.7	81.3	81.3	79.9
16-19	68.1	65.8	61.9	66.2	70.5	69.5	68.9
Female	64.6	65.6	57.2	64.2	66.0	67.0	67.9
Male	71.4	66.1	67.5	68.4	75.1	72.0	69.8
20-24	76.8	75.3	76.6	78.8	80.9	80.0	81.9
Female	63.4	66.5	71.1	74.8	75.0	78.1	
Male	88.0	87.0	86.8	86.3	85.4	85.9	
25-34	77.1	76.1	76.8	78.7	81.4	82.7	81.5
Female	–	56.6	58.2	61.2	66.8	68.2	67.2
Male	–	94.7	95.4	95.9	95.6	96.1	95.8
35-44	77.4	81.7	80.2	81.5	80.6	82.1	84.4
Female	–	67.5	64.8	66.9	64.5	67.9	71.8
Male	–	97.3	96.7	96.7	95.8	96.6	97.8
45-54	74.3	79.6	79.1	80.2	80.4	80.3	80.3
Female	–	63.9	63.3	66.4	68.8	69.1	67.5
Male	–	94.9	96.4	95.1	91.7	90.3	92.0
55-64	58.7	57.3	55.5	56.5	59.4	57.1	52.8
Female	–	43.9	41.4	41.1	43.2	46.7	42.3
Male	–	72.7	70.0	73.3	77.4	68.4	62.4
65 and older	12.8	13.0	13.2	11.6	12.1	12.1	–
Female	–	8.7	7.7	7.6	7.1	6.8	–
Male	–	18.7	21.0	17.2	18.7	19.1	–

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.2

Utah Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population by Sex and Age,1987

Age	Labor Force Participation Rate	Civilian Labor Force	Employment	Unemployment	
				Total	Rate
16 and older	69.7	757,000	708,000	48,000	6.4
Female	59.9	333,000	311,000	21,000	6.5
Male	79.9	424,000	397,000	27,000	6.3
16-19	68.9	75,000	64,000	11,000	15.2
Female	67.9	37,000	32,000	5,000	13.3
Male	69.8	38,000	32,000	6,000	17.0
20-24	81.9	109,000	102,000	7,000	6.7
Female	78.1	54,000	51,000	3,000	5.9
Male	85.9	56,000	52,000	4,000	7.4
25-34	81.5	230,000	217,000	13,000	5.6
Female	67.2	95,000	90,000	6,000	5.9
Male	95.8	135,000	128,000	7,000	5.3
35-44	84.4	176,000	167,000	8,000	4.8
Female	71.8	77,000	73,000	5,000	5.9
Male	97.8	99,000	95,000	4,000	3.9
45-54	80.3	99,000	94,000	4,000	4.4
Female	67.5	40,000	38,000	1,000	3.7
Male	92.0	59,000	56,000	3,000	4.9
55-64	52.8	52,000	49,000	3,000	6.1
Female	42.3	22,000	21,000	1,000	4.5
Male	62.4	30,000	28,000	2,000	5.6

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.3

United States Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate by Sex and Age, Annual Averages 1981-1987

AGE	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
16 and older	64.4	64.4	64.0	64.4	64.8	65.3	65.6
Female	52.3	52.7	52.9	53.6	54.5	55.3	56.0
Male	77.5	77.2	76.4	76.4	76.3	76.3	76.2
16-19	56.5	54.7	53.5	53.9	54.5	54.7	54.7
Female	49.4	51.6	50.8	51.8	52.5	53.0	53.3
Male	60.6	58.1	56.2	56.0	56.8	56.4	56.1
20-24	77.8	78.1	77.2	77.6	78.2	78.9	78.9
Female	69.1	70.1	69.9	70.4	71.8	72.4	73.0
Male	86.6	86.0	84.8	85.0	85.0	85.8	85.2
25-34	80.8	81.3	81.3	81.8	82.5	82.9	83.3
Female	66.9	68.1	69.0	69.8	70.9	71.6	72.4
Male	95.1	94.9	94.2	94.4	94.7	94.6	94.6
35-44	80.8	81.4	81.6	82.4	83.1	83.7	84.3
Female	66.9	67.9	68.7	70.1	71.8	73.1	74.5
Male	95.5	95.4	95.2	95.4	95.0	94.8	94.6
45-54	75.8	75.9	76.0	76.5	77.3	78.0	78.6
Female	61.1	61.6	61.9	62.9	64.4	65.9	67.1
Male	91.5	91.2	91.2	91.2	91.0	91.0	90.7
55-64	55.3	55.0	54.5	54.2	54.2	54.0	54.4
Female	41.5	41.8	41.5	41.7	42.0	42.3	42.7
Male	70.8	70.2	69.4	68.5	67.9	67.3	67.6
65 and older	12.4	11.9	11.7	11.1	10.8	10.9	11.1
Female	8.1	7.9	7.8	7.5	7.3	7.4	7.4
Male	18.5	17.8	17.4	16.3	15.8	16.0	16.3

NOTE: Figures for 1981 and 1982 represent total labor force participation rates (includes armed forces).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.4

United States Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population by Sex and Age 1987 (Numbers in Thousands)

Age	Labor Force Participation Rate	Civilian Labor Force	Employment	Unemployment	
				Total	Rate
16 and older	65.5	182,753	112,440	7,425	6.2
Female	56.0	53,658	50,334	3,324	6.2
Male	76.2	66,207	62,107	4,101	6.2
16-19	54.7	7,988	6,640	1,347	16.9
Female	53.3	3,875	3,260	616	15.9
Male	56.1	4,112	3,381	732	17.8
20-24	78.9	14,977	13,524	1,453	9.7
Female	73.0	7,140	6,466	674	9.4
Male	85.2	7,837	7,058	779	9.9
25-34	83.3	34,233	33,105	2,129	6.0
Female	72.4	15,577	14,617	960	6.2
Male	94.6	19,656	18,487	1,169	5.9
35-44	84.3	28,460	27,179	1,281	4.5
Female	74.5	12,873	12,281	592	4.6
Male	94.6	15,587	14,898	689	4.4
45-54	78.6	18,210	17,487	723	4.0
Female	67.1	8,034	7,737	258	3.7
Male	90.7	10,176	9,750	426	4.2
55-64	54.4	11,877	11,465	412	3.5
Female	42.7	4,937	4,783	155	3.1
Male	67.6	6,940	6,682	258	3.7
65 and older	11.1	3,119	3,041	78	2.5
Female	7.4	1,221	1,191	30	2.4
Male	16.3	1,899	1,850	49	2.6

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.5

Utah Employment Status of Civilian Noninstitutional Population by Sex and Marital Status
1987 Annual Averages

	Labor Force Participation Rate	Civilian Labor Force	Employment	Unemployment	
				Total	Rate
Total	69.7	757,000	708,000	48,000	6.4
Female	59.9	333,000	311,000	21,000	6.5
Male	79.9	424,000	397,000	27,000	6.3
Married, Spouse Present	69.8	488,000	466,000	22,000	4.5
Female	57.6	200,000	190,000	10,000	5.0
Male	81.7	288,000	276,000	12,000	4.2
Single, Never Married	75.8	173,000	157,000	17,000	9.7
Female	72.3	74,000	68,000	6,000	8.5
Male	78.7	99,000	89,000	11,000	10.6
Other Marital Status	60.4	95,000	86,000	9,000	9.7
Female	55.4	58,000	53,000	5,000	8.7
Male	70.4	37,000	33,000	4,000	11.3

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.6

Utah Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates by Age and Sex, 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980

Age	1950	1960	1970	1980	Percentage Point Change 1950-1980
16 and older	52.5	57.4	58.9	64.2	11.7
Female	25.2	33.5	41.5	49.8	24.6
Male	82.5	82.3	77.4	79.3	-3.2
16-19	38.5	45.7	50.9	57.1	18.6
Female	29.0	36.0	41.6	53.4	24.4
Male	48.4	56.0	60.5	61.3	12.9
20-24	55.2	59.1	63.6	70.5	15.3
Female	34.0	40.3	53.2	60.9	26.9
Male	77.7	81.6	75.7	83.0	5.3
25-34	57.8	61.2	64.9	73.6	15.8
Female	22.9	28.0	39.5	54.2	31.3
Male	92.3	94.7	90.6	94.2	1.9
35-44	62.3	67.2	72.0	77.0	14.7
Female	28.3	37.9	48.9	59.5	31.2
Male	96.0	96.9	95.9	96.5	0.5
45-54	62.5	70.4	73.5	74.6	13.1
Female	29.6	44.9	53.2	58.7	29.1
Male	94.4	95.5	94.3	93.7	-0.7
55-64	55.8	61.5	64.7	57.4	1.6
Female	22.4	35.7	44.9	42.2	19.8
Male	87.6	87.7	85.5	73.9	-13.7
65 and older	25.2	21.3	18.8	14.5	-10.1
Female	6.5	10.0	9.7	8.8	2.3
Male	45.4	34.3	30.3	22.1	-23.3

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.7

United States Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate by Age and Sex 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980

Age	1950	1960	1970	1980	Percentage Point Change 1950-1980
16 And Older	54.0	60.0	58.0	62.0	8.0
Female	30.0	37.7	43.3	49.9	19.9
Male	80.0	83.3	79.7	75.1	4.9
16-17	28.0	37.0	30.0	36.9	8.9
Female	18.0	29.1	34.9	34.3	16.3
Male	38.0	46.0	47.0	39.3	1.3
18-19	35.0	60.0	54.0	61.2	26.2
Female	44.0	50.9	53.6	56.8	12.8
Male	67.0	69.3	66.7	65.5	-1.5
20-24	62.0	67.0	68.0	75.2	13.2
Female	43.2	46.1	57.7	67.8	24.6
Male	81.9	88.1	83.3	82.7	0.8
25-34	60.0	66.0	69.0	78.7	18.7
Female	31.7	36.0	45.0	64.8	33.1
Male	89.3	97.5	96.4	92.8	3.5
35-44	64.0	70.0	72.0	79.1	15.1
Female	34.9	34.4	51.1	64.7	29.8
Male	93.6	97.7	96.9	94.1	0.5
45-54	62.0	72.0	73.0	73.9	11.9
Female	32.8	49.8	54.4	58.8	26.0
Male	91.7	95.7	94.2	90.2	-1.5
55-64	53.0	61.0	57.0	55.5	2.5
Female	23.4	37.2	43.0	41.6	18.2
Male	83.4	86.8	83.0	71.3	-12.1
65 and older	24.0	21.0	16.0	12.6	-11.4
Female	8.0	10.8	9.7	8.2	0.2
Male	41.5	33.1	26.8	19.3	-22.2

NOTE: These figures for the census are provided for comparison to Utah Census figures and will differ from annual averages which may be shown elsewhere.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.8

Utah and United States Labor Force Participation by Marital Status and Presence of Children, 1960, 1970 and 1980

				With Children Under 6 Years			With Children 6-17 Years			With Children Under 18		
	Total	Married Husband Present	Other Marital Status	Total	Married Husband Present	Other	Total	Married Husband Present	Other	Total	Married Husband Present	Other
UTAH												
1960[1]	290,046	193,432	96,614	86,894	82,711	4,183	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
In Labor Force	94,103	56,667	37,436	16,935	15,137	1,798	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Percent	32.4	29.3	38.7	19.5	18.3	43.0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1970	351,169	225,136	126,033	84,707	78,117	6,590	72,529	64,460	8,069	193,933	82,559	111,374
In Labor Force	145,799	90,124	55,675	24,768	21,625	3,143	38,625	32,931	5,694	82,406	35,568	46,838
Percent	41.5	40.0	44.2	29.2	27.7	47.7	53.3	51.1	70.6	42.5	43.1	42.1
1980	498,563	314,122	184,441	131,791	119,799	11,992	84,854	71,996	13,858	280,918	122,327	158,591
In Labor Force	246,963	142,290	104,673	49,346	42,179	7,167	55,339	43,626	11,713	142,278	56,485	85,793
Percent	49.5	45.3	56.8	37.4	35.2	59.8	64.5	60.6	84.5	50.6	46.2	54.1
UNITED STATES (000s)												
1960[1]	664,961	40,335	24,627	14,432	13,405	1,028	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
In Labor Force	22,410	12,365	10,044	3,050	2,575	475	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Percent	34.5	30.7	40.8	21.1	19.2	46.2	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1970	73,852	44,412	129,434	13,272	12,151	1,576	14,681	12,620	2,062	45,443	19,641	24,802
In Labor Force	30,547	17,418	13,129	4,227	3,424	803	7,354	5,950	1,405	18,965	8,044	10,921
Percent	41.4	39.2	44.6	30.8	28.2	51.0	50.1	47.1	68.1	41.7	41.0	42.3
1980	84,482	49,369	40,113	13,619	11,365	2,254	17,016	13,557	3,460	58,847	24,448	34,400
In Labor Force	44,669	24,276	20,393	6,221	4,990	1,230	10,726	8,149	2,577	27,722	11,136	16,586
Percent	49.9	49.2	50.8	45.7	43.9	54.6	63.0	60.1	74.5	47.1	45.6	48.2

[1] 1960 data for females 14 years and older, data for remaining years for females 16 and older.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.9

Utah Civilian Labor Force by Age and Sex, 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980

Age	1950	1960	1970	1980	Percentage Change 1950-1980
16 and older	238.1	309.7	399.2	619.7	160.3
Female	56.2	92.4	145.6	246.4	338.4
Male	181.9	217.2	253.5	373.3	106.2
16-19	17.4	27.2	40.1	64.9	273.0
Female	6.7	11.2	17.4	30.7	258.2
Male	10.7	16.6	22.7	34.2	219.6
20-24	30.6	35.0	60.3	109.8	258.8
Female	9.8	13.0	27.1	48.4	393.9
Male	20.9	22.0	33.2	61.4	193.8
25-34	60.8	68.1	84.7	177.4	191.8
Female	12.0	15.6	25.9	64.2	435.0
Male	48.8	52.5	58.7	113.2	132.0
35-44	53.0	70.1	76.4	109.7	107.0
Female	12.0	20.0	26.3	42.6	255.0
Male	41.0	50.2	50.1	67.1	63.7
45-54	39.6	59.1	73.3	84.7	113.9
Female	9.3	18.7	26.9	33.2	257.0
Male	30.4	40.4	46.4	51.5	69.4
55-64	26.1	36.8	49.8	57.3	119.5
Female	5.1	10.8	17.7	21.8	327.5
Male	20.9	26.0	32.1	35.5	69.9
65 and older	10.6	12.8	14.6	15.8	49.1
Female	1.4	3.2	4.3	5.5	292.9
Male	9.2	9.5	10.3	10.3	12.0

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.10

Utah Civilian Labor Force by Sex and Age, Annual Averages, 1981-1987
(Numbers in Thousands)

	1981		1982		1983		1984		1985		1986		1987	
Age	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex
16 and Older	646	100.0	688	100.0	691	100.0	721	100.0	730	100.0	755	100.0	757	100.0
Female	258	39.9	273	40.9	285	41.2	304	42.2	302	41.4	321	42.6	333	44.0
Male	388	60.1	395	59.1	406	58.8	417	57.8	428	58.6	433	57.4	424	56.0
16-19	70	100.0	67	100.0	62	100.0	67	100.0	72	100.0	71	100.0	75	100.0
Female	32	45.7	32	48.5	31	49.2	34	50.7	34	47.2	34	47.9	37	49.3
Male	38	54.3	34	51.5	32	50.8	33	49.3	38	52.8	37	52.1	38	50.7
20 and Older	576	100.0	601	100.0	629	100.0	654	100.0	658	100.0	684	100.0	682	100.0
Female	226	39.2	240	39.9	254	40.4	270	41.3	268	40.7	287	52.0	296	43.4
Male	351	60.8	361	60.1	375	59.6	384	58.7	390	59.3	396	58.0	386	56.6
20-24	107	100.0	104	100.0	120	100.0	121	100.0	120	100.0	120	100.0	109	100.0
Female	–	–	45	43.3	53	44.2	56	46.3	53	44.2	59	49.2	54	49.1
Male	–	–	59	56.7	67	55.8	65	53.7	67	55.8	61	50.8	56	50.9
25-34	202	100.0	208	100.0	203	100.0	216	100.0	220	100.0	237	100.0	230	100.0
Female	–	–	76	36.5	77	37.9	84	38.9	89	40.6	94	39.7	95	41.3
Male	–	–	132	63.5	126	62.1	132	61.1	130	59.4	143	60.3	135	58.7
35-44	114	100.0	128	100.0	132	100.0	140	100.0	141	100.0	155	100.0	176	100.0
Female	–	–	55	43.0	55	41.7	58	41.4	55	39.0	65	41.9	77	43.8
Male	–	–	73	57.0	77	58.3	81	57.9	86	61.0	90	58.1	99	56.3
45-54	80	100.0	86	100.0	100	100.0	97	100.0	97	100.0	95	100.0	99	100.0
Female	–	–	34	39.5	42	42.0	42	43.3	41	42.3	38	40.0	40	40.4
Male	–	–	52	60.5	58	58.0	56	57.7	56	57.7	57	60.0	59	59.6
55-64	96	100.0	58	100.0	58	100.0	64	100.0	64	100.0	61	100.0	52	100.0
Female	–	–	24	41.4	22	37.9	24	37.5	25	38.5	26	42.6	23	43.4
Male	–	–	34	58.6	36	62.1	40	62.5	40	61.5	35	57.4	30	56.6
65 and Older	17	100.0	17	100.0	17	100.0	16	100.0	17	100.0	15	100.0	15	100.0
Female	–	–	6	37.5	6	35.3	6	37.5	6	35.3	5	33.3	7	50.0
Male	–	–	10	62.5	11	64.7	10	62.5	11	64.7	10	66.7	7	50.0

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.11

Utah Percentage Distribution of Civilian Labor Force by Sex and Age, 1950, 1960, 1970 and1980

	1950		1960		1970		1980		% Point Change 1950-1980	
Age	% By Sex	% By Age	% By Sex	% By Age	% By Sex	% By Age	% By Sex	% By Age	% By Sex	% By Age
16 and Older	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Female	23.6	100.0	29.8	100.0	36.5	100.0	39.8	100.0	16.2	0.0
Male	76.4	100.0	70.2	100.0	63.5	100.0	60.2	100.0	–	0.0
16-19	100.0	7.3	100.0	8.9	100.0	10.0	100.0	10.5	0.0	3.2
Female	38.5	11.9	40.3	12.1	43.4	12.0	47.3	12.5	8.8	0.6
Male	61.5	5.9	59.7	7.6	56.6	9.0	52.7	9.2	–	3.3
20-24	100.0	12.9	100.0	11.3	100.0	15.1	100.0	17.7	0.0	4.3
Female	31.9	17.4	3731	14.1	44.9	18.6	44.1	19.6	12.2	2.2
Male	68.1	11.5	62.9	10.1	55.1	13.1	55.9	16.4	–	4.9
25-34	100.0	25.5	100.0	22.0	100.0	21.2	100.0	28.6	0.0	3.1
Female	19.7	21.4	22.9	16.9	30.6	17.8	36.2	26.1	16.5	4.7
Male	80.3	26.8	77.1	24.2	69.4	23.2	7.4	30.3	–	3.5
35-44	100.0	22.3	100.0	22.6	100.0	19.1	100.0	17.7	0.0	-4.6
Female	22.6	21.4	28.5	21.6	34.4	18.1	38.8	17.3	16.2	-4.1
Male	77.4	22.5	71.5	23.1	65.6	19.8	61.2	18.0	–	-4.5
45-54	100.0	16.6	100.0	19.1	100.0	18.4	100.0	13.7	0.0	-2.9
Female	23.4	16.5	31.6	20.2	37.6	18.5	39.2	13.5	15.8	-3.0
Male	76.6	16.7	68.4	18.6	63.3	18.3	60.8	13.8	–	-2.9
55-64	100.0	11.0	100.0	11.9	100.0	12.5	100.0	9.2	0.0	-1.8
Female	19.6	9.1	29.3	11.7	35.5	12.2	38.0	8.8	18.4	-0.3
Male	80.4	11.5	70.7	12.0	64.5	12.7	62.0	9.5	–	-7.0
65 and Older	100.0	4.5	100.0	4.1	100.0	3.7	100.0	2.5	0.0	-2.0
Female	13.2	2.5	25.2	3.5	29.5	3.0	34.8	2.2	21.6	-0.3
Male	86.8	5.1	74.8	4.4	70.5	4.1	65.2	2.8	–	-2.3

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.12

United States Civilian Labor Force by Age and Sex, 1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980 (Numbers in Thousands)

Age	1950	1960	1970	1980	Percentage Change 1950-1980
16 and Older	58,201.2	67,220.1	80,051.0	104,449.8	79.5
Female	16,411.7	22,094.0	30,501.8	44,523.3	171.3
Male	41,789.5	45,126.1	49,549.2	59,926.5	43.4
16-19	3,299.1	4,013.0	5,913.4	8,148.6	147.0
Female	1,329.1	1,690.3	2,600.2	3,821.6	187.5
Male	1,970.0	2,322.7	3,313.2	4,327.0	119.6
20-24	6,773.1	6,388.1	10,022.4	15,423.9	127.7
Female	2,528.5	2,453.9	4,665.3	7,160.0	183.2
Male	4,244.6	3,934.2	5,357.1	8,263.9	94.7
25-34	14,099.5	14,188.3	16,671.5	28,767.1	104.0
Female	3,856.3	4,084.7	5,679.1	12,111.8	214.1
Male	10,243.2	10,103.6	10,992.4	16,655.2	62.6
35-44	13,517.3	16,134.4	16,394.0	20,054.9	48.4
Female	3,785.8	5,233.4	5,959.6	8,446.2	123.1
Male	9,731.5	10,091.0	10,434.4	11,608.7	19.3
45-54	10,632.5	14,246.8	16,557.2	16,754.2	57.6
Female	2,853.7	4,874.9	6,288.1	6,916.5	142.4
Male	7,778.8	9,371.9	10,269.1	9,837.7	26.5
55-64	6,995.8	9,108.6	11,231.7	12,079.9	72.7
Female	1,551.0	2,839.8	4,139.1	4,823.9	211.0
Male	5,44.8	6,268.8	7,092.6	7,256.0	33.3
65 and Older	2,883.8	3,141.0	3,261.0	3,221.3	11.2
Female	507.3	917.0	1,170.6	1,243.4	145.1
Male	2,376.5	2,224.0	2,090.4	1,977.9	-16.8

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.13

United States Civilian Labor Force by Sex and Age, 1981-1987 (Numbers in Thousands)

	1981		1982		1983		1984		1985		1986		1987	
	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex	Total	% By Sex
16 and Older	108,670	100.0	112,384	100.0	111,550	100.0	113,544	100.0	115,461	100.0	117,834	100.0	119,865	100.0
Female	46,969	43.0	47,944	42.7	48,503	43.5	49,709	43.8	51,050	44.2	52,413	44.5	53,658	44.8
Male	61,974	57.0	64,440	57.3	63,047	56.5	63,835	56.2	64,411	55.8	64,422	55.5	66,207	55.2
16-19	8,988	100.0	8,803	100.0	8,171	100.0	7,943	100.0	7,901	100.0	7,926	100.0	7,988	100.0
Female	4,211	46.9	4,082	46.4	3,868	47.3	3,810	48.0	3,767	47.7	3,824	48.2	3,875	48.5
Male	4,777	53.1	4,721	53.6	4,303	52.7	4,134	52.0	4,134	52.3	4,102	51.8	4,112	51.5
20-24	16,099	100.0	16,941	100.0	16,052	100.0	16,046	100.0	14,718	100.0	15,441	100.0	14,977	100.0
Female	7,451	46.3	7,568	44.7	7,451	46.4	7,451	46.4	7,434	47.3	7,293	47.2	7,140	47.7
Male	8,648	53.7	9,373	55.3	8,601	53.6	8,594	53.6	8,283	52.7	8,148	52.8	7,837	52.3
25-34	30,392	100.0	31,903	100.0	31,834	100.0	32,723	100.0	33,550	100.0	34,591	100.0	34,233	100.0
Female	12,912	42.5	13,458	42.2	13,796	43.3	14,234	43.5	14,742	43.9	15,208	44.0	15,577	44.2
Male	17,479	57.5	18,445	57.8	18,038	56.7	18,488	56.5	18,808	56.1	19,383	56.0	19,656	55.8
35-44	21,211	100.0	22,717	100.0	23,611	100.0	24,933	100.0	26,073	100.0	27,232	100.0	28,460	100.0
Female	9,045	42.6	9,657	42.5	10,213	43.3	10,896	43.7	11,567	44.4	12,204	44.8	12,873	45.2
Male	12,166	57.4	13,060	57.5	13,398	56.7	14,037	56.3	14,506	55.6	15,029	55.2	15,587	54.8
45-54	16,970	100.0	16,927	100.0	16,851	100.0	17,006	100.0	17,322	100.0	17,739	100.0	18,210	100.0
Female	7,101	41.8	7,106	42.0	7,105	42.2	7,230	42.5	7,452	43.0	7,746	43.7	8,034	44.1
Male	9,868	58.2	9,821	58.0	9,746	57.8	9,776	57.5	9,870	57.0-	9,994	56.3	10,178	55.9
55-64	11,969	100.0	12,063	100.0	11,992	100.0	11,961	100.0	11,991	100.0	11,894	100.0	11,877	100.0
Female	4,799	40.1	4,888	40.5	4,873	40.6	4,911	41.1	4,932	41.1	4,940	41.5	4,937	41.6
Male	7,170	50.9	7,175	59.5	7,119	59.4	7,050	58.9	7,060	58.9	6,954	58.5	6,940	58.4
65 and Older	3,042	100.0	3,030	100.0	3,040	100.0	2,933	100.0	2,907	100.0	3,010	100.0	3,119	100.0
Female	1,176	38.7	1,185	39.1	1,198	39.4	1,177	40.1	1,156	39.8	1,199	39.8	1,221	39.1
Male	1,866	61.3	1,845	60.9	1,842	60.6	1,755	59.9	1,750	60.2	1,811	60.2	1,899	60.9

SOURCE: U.S. Department Of Labor, Bureau Of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.14

United States Percentage Distribution of Civilian Labor Force by Sex and Age
1950, 1960, 1970 and 1980

Age	1950		1960		1970		1980		% Point Change 1950-1980	
	% By Sex	% By Age	% By Sex	% By Age	% By Sex	%by Age	% By Sex	% By Age	% By Sex	% By Age
16 and Older	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0
Female	28.2	100.0	32.9	100.0	38.1	100.0	42.6	100.0	14.4	0.0
Male	71.8	100.0	67.1	100.0	61.9	100.0	57.4	100.0	–	0.0
16-19	100.0	5.7	100.0	6.0	100.0	7.4	100.0	7.8	0.0	2.1
Female	40.3	8.1	42.1	7.7	44.0	8.5	46.9	8.6	6.6	0.5
Male	59.7	4.7	57.9	5.1	56.0	6.7	53.1	7.2	–	2.5
20-24	100.0	11.6	100.0	9.5	100.0	12.5	100.0	14.8	0.0	3.2
Female	37.3	15.4	38.4	11.1	46.5	15.3	46.4	16.1	9.1	0.7
Male	62.7	10.2	61.6	8.7	53.5	10.8	5306	13.8	–	3.6
25-34	100.0	24.2	100.0	21.1	100.0	20.8	100.0	27.5	0.0	3.3
Female	27.4	23.5	28.8	18.5	34.1	18.6	42.1	27.2	14.7	3.7
Male	72.6	24.5	71.2	22.4	65.9	22.2	57.9	27.8	–	3.3
35-44	100.0	23.2	100.0	24.0	100.0	20.5	100.0	19.2	0.0	-4.0
Female	28.0	23.1	32.4	23.7	36.4	19.5	42.1	19.0	14.1	-4.1
Male	72.0	23.3	67.6	24.2	63.6	21.1	57.9	19.4	–	-3.9
45-54	100.0	18.3	100.0	21.2	100.0	20.7	100.0	16.0	0.0	-2.3
Female	26.8	17.4	34.2	22.1	38.0	20.6	41.3	15.5	14.5	-1.9
Male	73.2	18.6	65.8	20.8	62.0	20.7	58.7	16.4	–	-2.2
55-64	100.0	12.0	100.0	13.6	100.0	14.0	100.0	11.6	0.0	-0.4
Female	22.2	9.5	31.2	12.9	36.9	13.6	39.9	10.8	17.7	1.3
Male	77.8	13.0	68.8	13.9	63.1	14.3	60.1	12.1	–	-0.9
65 and Older	100.0	5.0	100.0	4.7	100.0	4.1	100.0	3.1	0.0	-1.9
Female	17.6	3.1	29.2	4.2	35.9	3.8	38.6	2.8	21.0	-0.3
Male	82.4	5.7	70.8	4.9	64.1	4.2	61.4	3.3	–	-2.4

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.15

Utah Unemployment Rate by Sex and Age Annual Averages, 1981-1987

AGE	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
16 and Older	6.7	7.8	9.2	6.5	5.9	6.0	6.4
Female	7.9	7.6	8.9	7.1	6.4	6.8	6.5
Male	5.8	7.9	9.4	6.1	5.7	5.4	6.3
16-19	15.4	19.0	18.5	16.6	14.4	11.9	15.2
Female	15.4	18.2	16.2	19.1	14.7	13.2	13.3
Male	15.4	19.8	20.8	14.0	14.1	10.8	17.0
20-24	9.8	9.7	12.7	7.4	10.3	8.8	6.7
Female	—	8.8	9.8	6.7	12.6	9.9	5.9
Male	—	10.3	15.1	8.0	8.4	7.8	7.4
25-34	5.6	7.0	9.3	6.4	5.3	5.5	5.6
Female	—	6.2	9.3	7.5	4.7	6.3	5.9
Male	—	7.5	9.2	5.8	5.7	5.0	5.3
35-44	4.5	5.5	6.4	5.3	3.4	4.5	4.8
Female	—	6.2	7.2	5.6	3.3	5.3	5.9
Male	—	5.0	5.9	5.1	3.5	3.9	3.9
45-54	4.3	5.1	6.5	3.0	2.3	3.9	4.4
Female	—	5.1	6.9	2.5	2.0	3.7	3.7
Male	—	5.1	6.3	3.3	2.5	4.1	4.9
55-64	3.0	4.8	5.0	3.6	2.8	3.2	6.1
Female	—	4.0	5.9	2.5	2.7	3.0	4.5
Male	—	5.3	4.5	4.2	2.8	3.4	5.6
65 and Older	0.9	2.9	0.9	1.6	1.7	3.4	—
Female	—	1.7	0.7	1.2	1.6	—	—
Male	—	3.6	1.0	1.8	1.7	5.1	—

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.16

Utah Employed Persons by Hours Worked and Sex, 1982-1987

	Hours At Work Per Week							Average Hours	
	Percent Distribution								
	1-14	15-29	30-34	35-39	40	41-48	49 +	Total At Work	Full-time Schedule
1982	8.0	14.4	8.4	3.8	38.5	9.4	17.4	37.4	46.1
Female	13.2	20.4	11.9	5.5	36.2	6.0	6.4	31.8	42.1
Male	4.6	10.0	6.0	2.9	39.8	11.7	24.9	41.2	46.5
1983	7.8	14.3	8.5	4.2	37.4	9.8	18.1	47.7	45.3
Female	13.0	22.0	11.4	5.7	35.4	6.5	6.5	31.8	42.1
Male	4.2	9.3	6.5	3.1	38.9	12.1	25.9	41.8	46.8
1984	6.8	14.2	7.7	4.5	37.5	9.8	19.5	38.3	45.5
Female	11.2	21.7	10.5	7.1	35.2	7.1	7.1	32.7	45.5
Male	4.0	9.0	5.8	2.6	39.1	11.6	28.0	42.3	47.0
1985	7.0	15.7	7.2	4.4	36.8	9.0	20.0	38.3	45.9
Female	10.8	22.8	9.7	5.6	35.4	6.7	8.6	32.8	42.7
Male	4.4	10.6	5.4	3.6	36.4	10.6	27.9	42.1	47.5
1986	6.8	15.3	8.0	4.6	35.8	9.6	19.6	38.0	45.8
Female	11.7	21.6	10.6	5.7	34.0	6.7	9.9	33.0	43.3
Male	4.0	10.9	6.1	3.8	37.1	11.4	26.5	41.6	47.0
1987	6.7	16.3	10.4	4.7	31.8	10.0	19.9	37.8	46.0
Female	10.5	23.7	12.9	5.8	30.5	7.5	9.5	32.7	43.2
Male	4.1	10.6	8.5	3.9	33.1	11.9	28.2	41.6	47.5

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.17

United States Full-time or Part-time Status of Civilian Labor Force by Sex, 1982-1987

	Full-time Labor Force					Part-time Labor Force			
		Employed On Full-time Schedules	Part-time For Economic Reasons	Unemployed				Unemployed	
	Total			Total	Rate	Total	Employed	Total	Rate
1982	85,287	79,118	6,169	9,006	9.6	15,912	14,239	1,672	10.5
Female	33,358	30,218	3,140	3,521	9.5	10,876	9,898	978	9.0
Male	51,929	48,899	3,030	5,485	9.6	5,036	4,342	694	13.8
1983	86,661	80,395	6,266	9,075	9.5	15,814	14,172	1,642	10.4
Female	34,225	30,925	3,300	3,494	9.3	10,783	9,821	963	8.9
Male	52,436	49,470	2,966	5,581	9.6	5,031	4,352	679	13.5
1984	90,574	84,831	5,743	7,057	7.2	15,912	14,431	1,481	9.3
Female	35,879	32,788	3,091	2,916	7.5	10,914	10,035	879	8.1
Male	54,695	52,043	2,652	4,142	7.0	4,998	4,396	602	12.1
1985	99,178	86,795	5,590	6,793	6.8	16,283	14,764	1,519	9.3
Female	39,849	33,963	3,018	2,868	7.2	11,201	10,278	923	8.2
Male	59,329	52,832	2,572	3,925	6.6	5,082	4,486	596	11.7
1986	101,085	88,789	5,588	6,708	6.6	16,750	15,221	1,529	9.1
Female	40,936	35,145	2,999	2,792	6.8	11,478	10,563	915	8.0
Male	60,150	53,644	2,590	3,916	6.5	5,272	4,658	614	11.6
1987	102,631	91,251	5,401	5,979	5.8	17,234	15,788	1,446	8.4
Female	41,862	36,515	2,889	2,458	5.9	11,796	10,930	866	7.3
Male	60,768,	54,735	2,513	3,520	5.8	5,438	4,858	580	10.7

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.18

Utah Reason For Labor Force Nonparticipation by Sex and Age, 1985 (Numbers In Thousands)

		Keeping House		In School		Unable To Work		Other	
Age	Total	Number	% Of Total	Number	% Of Total	Number	% Of Total	Number	% Of Total
Total	332	176	53	38	11	10	3	108	33
Female	233	172	74	17	7	5	2	40	17
Male	99	4	4	21	21	5	5	68	69
Age 16-24	58	15	26	32	55	1	2	11	19
Female	36	15	42	15	42	a	—	6	17
Male	24	a	—	17	71	1	4	5	21
Age 25-34	50	41	82	4	8	1	2	5	10
Female	44	40	91	1	2	a	—	3	7
Male	6	a	—	3	50	a	—	2	33
Age 35-54	58	43	74	2	3	2	3	10	17
Female	49	43	88	1	2	a	—	4	8
Male	9	a	—	a	—	2	4	5	10
Age 55 +	166	76	46	1	1	5	3	83	50
Female	105	74	70	a	—	4	4	27	26
Male	61	4	7	a	—	1	2	55	90

a = figures total less than 1,000.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.19

United States Labor Force Status of Women Maintaining Families
By Presence and Age of Youngest Child and Marital Status, March 1983
(Numbers In Thousands)

Labor Force Status	Total	With No Own Children[1] Under Age 18	With Children[1] Under Age 18: Total	With Children[1] Under Age 18: Children Age 6 To 17 Only	With Children[1] Under Age 18: Children Under Age 6
Women Maintaining Families	9,828	3,788	6,040	3,746	2,294
In Labor Force	5,861	1,815	4,047	2,780	1,266
Participation Rate	59.6	47.9	67.0	74.2	55.2
Unemployed	831	131	700	406	294
Unemployment Rate	14.2	7.2	17.3	14.6	23.2
Not In Labor Force	3,996	1,973	1,993	966	1,028
Never-married	1,823	574	1,248	446	802
In Labor Force	1,018	372	646	292	353
Participation Rate	55.8	64.8	51.8	65.5	44.0
Unemployed	213	33	180	66	115
Unemployment Rate	20.9	8.9	27.9	22.6	32.6
Not In Labor Force	805	202	603	154	449
Separated	1,831	365	1,466	828	637
In Labor Force	1,141	228	913	573	339
Participation Rate	62.3	62.5	62.3	69.2	53.2
Unemployed	217	37	180	100	80
Unemployment Rate	19.0	16.2	19.7	17.5	23.6
Not In Labor Force	690	137	553	255	298
Widowed	2,559	2,025	534	463	71
in Labor Force	877	587	290	253	37
Participation Rate	34.3	29.0	54.3	54.6	—[2]
Unemployed	77	32	44	32	12
Unemployment Rate	8.8	5.5	15.2	12.6	—[2]
Not In Labor Force	1,682	1,438	244	210	34
Divorced	3,615	824	2,792	2,008	784
In Labor Force	2,826	628	2,198	1,661	537
Participation Rate	78.2	76.2	78.7	82.7	5.8.5
Unemployed	324	29	295	208	87
Unemployment Rate	11.5	4.6	13.4	12.5	16.2
Not In Labor Force	790	196	594	347	246

[1] Children are defined as "own" children of the family. Included are never-married daughters, sons, stepchildren, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, cousins, and unrelated children.

[2] Rate not shown where base is less than 75,000.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2.20

Utah Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates by Sex and County, 1980

County	Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate		Female Share of Labor Force
	Male	Female	
Beaver	73.0	33.2	32.1
Box Elder	81.9	45.9	36.9
Cache	74.2	47.4	39.9
Carbon	78.4	42.3	35.7
Daggett	83.7	34.1	28.6
Davis	75.5	51.9	40.4
Duchesne	79.9	39.4	32.3
Emery	83.1	33.6	27.9
Garfield	69.8	40.3	36.2
Grand	84.9	47.9	35.5
Iron	78.5	48.1	38.5
Juab	74.0	42.0	37.1
Kane	72.4	40.1	36.6
Millard	76.5	43.0	36.6
Morgan	77.0	43.5	35.2
Piute	68.2	29.4	30.1
Rich	83.8	37.2	27.9
Salt Lake	83.8	54.2	40.7
San Juan	73.8	40.5	36.8
Sanpete	71.7	36.8	36.1
Sevier	76.7	43.8	37.2
Summit	86.2	53.7	37.2
Tooele	77.1	51.1	39.6
Uintah	83.0	38.8	31.6
Utah	74.2	44.0	39.2
Wasatch	84.7	44.2	35.4
Washington	68.4	38.5	37.6
Wayne	72.5	29.4	28.5
Weber	76.2	51.4	41.9
State Total	79.3	49.8	39.8

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 2.21

Utah Full-time or Part-time Status of Civilian Labor Force by Sex, 1982-1987 (Numbers in Thousands)

	Full-time Labor Force					Part-time Labor Force			
	Total	Employed On Full-time Schedules	Part-time For Economic Reasons	Unemployed Total	Unemployed Rate	Total	Employed	Unemployed Total	Unemployed Rate
1982	491	458	33	42	7.9	134	125	10	7.4
Female	167	152	15	15	8.4	90	85	5	6.1
Male	324	307	17	27	7.6	44	40	4	10.1
1983	514	469	45	51	9.0	125	113	13	10.2
Female	181	156	25	17	8.7	87	79	8	9.5
Male	334	313	21	34	9.1	38	34	4	11.6
1984	554	518	36	34	5.8	133	120	13	9.7
Female	200	177	22	14	6.4	91	83	8	8.8
Male	354	340	14	20	5.4	42	38	5	11.6
1985	551	518	33	32	5.5	147	136	11	7.8
Female	195	175	20	12	5.7	95	88	7	7.8
Male	356	343	13	20	5.4	52	48	4	7.7
1986	597	528	36	33	5.5	157	145	12	7.6
Female	221	186	21	14	6.3	99	92	7	7.1
Male	377	343	15	19	5.0	57	52	5	8.8
1987	601	528	39	33	5.6	156	141	15	9.5
Female	224	190	22	13	5.7	109	100	9	8.1
Male	377	338	18	21	5.5	47	41	6	12.6

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

TABLE 3.1

Utah Employed Persons 16 Years and Older by Occupation and Sex, 1970 and 1980

Occupation	1970 Male	1970 Female	1970 Total	1980 Male	1980 Female	1980 Total	1970 % Female	1980 % Female
TOTAL	241,574	136,988	378,562	352,730	233,191	585,921	36.2	39.8
Executive, Administrative & Managerial	27,603	6,616	34,219	48,448	17,983	66,431	19.3	27.1
Financial Managers	944	237	1,181	1,675	674	2,349	20.1	28.7
Accountants & Auditors	3,345	1,882	5,229	4,635	3,105	7,740	36.0	40.1
Personnel, Training & Labor Specialists	811	368	1,179	1,620	1,019	2,639	31.2	38.6
Buyers, Wholesale & Retail Trade Except Farm	487	147	634	610	393	1,003	23.2	39.2
Other Management Related Occupations	22,014	3,982	25,996	39,908	12,792	52,700	15.3	24.3
Professional Specialty Occupations	29,066	18,683	47,749	41,798	31,266	73,064	39.1	42.8
Engineers, Architects & Surveyors	6,526	261	6,787	9,100	324	9,424	3.8	3.4
Mathematical & Computer Scientists	968	172	1,140	1,412	218	1,630	15.1	13.4
Natural Scientists	740	116	856	1,138	256	1,394	13.6	18.4
Physicians, Dentists & Kindred	2,337	98	2,435	3,643	320	3,963	4.0	8.1
Registered Nurses, Therapists & Kindred	851	3,620	4,471	1,571	6,847	8,418	81.0	81.3
Elementary & Secondary School Teachers	5,622	8,926	14,548	7,570	12,930	20,500	61.4	63.1
Post Secondary Teachers	4,055	1,259	5,314	4,272	1,564	5,836	23.7	26.8
Counselors, Educational & Vocational	556	305	861	839	615	1,454	35.4	42.3
Social Scientists & Urban Planners	487	111	598	846	442	1,288	18.6	34.3
Social, Recreation & Religious Workers	1,214	531	1,745	2,129	1,254	3,383	30.4	37.1
Lawyers & Judges	1,187	41	1,228	2,179	262	2,441	3.3	10.7
Writers, Artists, Entertainers, & Athletes	2,895	1,439	4,334	4,349	3,061	7,410	33.2	41.3
Other Professional Occupations	1,628	1,804	3,432	2,750	3,173	5,923	52.6	53.6
Technicians & Related Support Occupations	7,453	2,446	9,899	13,706	6,927	20,633	24.7	33.6
Health Technologists & Technicians	512	869	1,381	1,102	1,961	3,063	62.9	64.0
Licensed Practical Nurses	36	946	932	80	2,124	2,204	96.3	96.4
Engineering, Science & Other Technicians	6,905	631	7,536	12,524	2,842	15,366	8.4	18.5

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3.1 (Continued)

Utah Employed Persons 16 Years and Older by Occupation and Sex, 1970 and 1980

Occupation	1970 Male	1970 Female	1970 Total	1980 Male	1980 Female	1980 Total	1970 % Female	1980 % Female
Sales Occupations	23,477	15,591	39,068	32,047	28,451	60,498	39.9	47.0
Supervisors, Self-employed	2,161	465	2,626	1,642	499	2,141	17.7	23.3
Supervisors, Other	3,590	415	4,005	4,826	1,772	6,598	10.4	26.9
Sales Representatives	9,214	1,026	10,240	14,978	4,190	19,168	10.0	21.9
Sales Workers	7,520	9,692	17,212	9,026	12,718	21,744	56.3	58.5
Cashiers	969	3,916	4,885	1,514	9,099	10,613	80.2	85.7
Sales Related Occupations	23	77	100	61	173	234	77.0	73.9
Administrative, Support Including Clerical	16,829	48,021	64,850	22,011	75,346	97,357	74.0	77.4
Supervisors, Administrative Support	1,500	1,232	2,732	3,458	2,743	6,201	45.1	44.2
Computer Equipment Operators	595	477	1,072	958	1,748	2,706	44.5	64.6
Secretaries, Stenographers & Typists	509	19,061	19,570	365	28,592	28,957	97.4	98.7
Bookkeepers	1,371	5,572	6,943	1,335	8,679	10,014	80.3	86.7
Financial Records Processing	337	1,268	1,605	506	1,800	2,306	79.0	78.1
Mail & Message Distributing Clerks	2,252	735	2,987	2,617	1,331	3,948	24.6	33.7
Material Recording, Scheduling, Distributing	5,067	2,173	7,240	6,101	4,294	10,395	30.0	41.3
Other Administrative Support Occupations	5,198	17,503	22,701	6,671	26,159	32,830	77.1	79.7
Service Occupations	19,423	28,792	48,215	29,258	41,936	71,194	59.7	58.9
Private Household Workers	139	2,544	2,683	47	1,845	1,892	94.8	97.5
Police And Firefighters	1,784	34	1,818	2,613	124	2,737	1.9	4.5
Guards	1,305	75	1,380	2,514	625	3,139	5.4	19.9
Other Protective Service Occupations	909	18	927	1,306	91	1,397	1.9	6.5
Food Service Occupations	4,852	13,671	18,523	8,105	18,892	26,997	73.8	70.0
Health Service Occupations	606	4,126	4,732	1,025	6,003	7,028	87.2	85.4
Cleaning And Building Service	8,002	3,875	11,877	11,408	5,865	17,273	32.6	34.0
Personal Service	1,826	4,449	6,275	2,240	8,491	10,731	70.9	79.1

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3.1 (Continued)

Utah Employed Persons 16 Years and Older by Occupation and Sex, 1970 and 1980

Occupation	1970			1980			1970 %	1980 %
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Female	Female
Farming, Forestry & Fishing	13,202	660	13,862	11,703	1,235	12,943	4.8	9.5
Farm Operators	6,703	199	6,902	5,470	223	5,693	2.9	3.9
Other Farming, Forestry & Fishing	6,499	461	6,960	6,238	1,012	7,250	6.6	14.0
Precision, Production, Craft & Repair	52,045	3,373	55,418	82,302	6,875	89,177	6.1	12.4
Auto Mechanics & Repairers	4,547	62	4,609	8,123	186	8,309	1.4	2.2
Other Mechanics & Repairers	13,628	343	13,971	17,775	922	18,697	2.5	4.9
Carpenters	3,940	87	4,027	8,266	170	8,436	2.2	2.0
Other Construction Trades	12,108	194	12,302	24,510	431	24,941	1.6	1.7
Mining & Drilling Occupations	2,321	33	2,354	5,337	87	5,424	1.4	1.6
Supervisors, Precision Production Workers	6,154	603	6,757	7,326	1,673	8,999	8.9	18.6
Precision Metal Production Occupations	3,884	143	4,027	4,534	294	4,828	3.6	6.1
Plant & System Operators	1,234	2	1,236	1,621	49	1,670	0.2	2.9
Other Precision Production Operators	4,229	1,906	6,135	4,810	3,063	7,873	31.1	38.9
Machine Operators, Assemblers & Inspectors	14,907	9,341	24,248	23,845	16,790	40,635	38.5	41.3
Machine Operators & Tenders, Excluding Prec.	10,447	7,096	17,543	13,792	9,388	23,180	40.4	40.5
Fabricators, Assemblers And Handworking	3,582	1,430	5,012	8,223	5,506	13,729	28.5	40.1
Prod. Inspect., Testers, Samplers, Weighers	878	815	1,693	1,830	1,896	3,726	48.1	50.9
Transportation & Material Moving Operators	19,578	305	19,883	27,629	1,659	29,288	1.5	5.7
Motor Vehicle Operators	11,588	209	11,797	17,669	1,238	18,907	1.8	6.5
Transportation, Except Motor Vehicles	2,692	26	2,718	2,654	31	2,685	1.0	1.2
Material Moving Equipment Operators	5,298	70	5,368	7,306	390	7,696	1.3	5.1

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3.1 (Continued)

Utah Employed Persons 16 Years and Older by Occupation and Sex, 1970 and 1980

Occupation	1970 Male	1970 Female	1970 Total	1980 Male	1980 Female	1980 Total	1970 % Female	1980 % Female
Handlers, Equip. Cleaners, Helpers, Laborers	17,991	3,160	21,151	19,978	4,723	24,701	14.9	19.1
Helpers	1,256	152	1,408	1,743	216	1,959	10.8	11.0
Construction Laborers	2,146	32	2,178	4,011	194	4,205	1.5	4.6
Freight, Stock And Material Handlers	4,216	421	4,637	5,066	1,038	6,104	9.1	17.0
Vehicle Washers & Equipment Cleaners	514	46	560	557	64	621	8.2	10.3
Misc. Manual Occupations	9,859	2,509	12,368	8,601	3,211	11,812	20.3	27.2

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3.2

Utah Employed Civilians by Occupation and Sex, 1983 - 1986 (Numbers In Thousands)

	1983			1984			1985			1986		
	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	% Female
TOTAL	368	259	41	414	302	42	426	300	41	410	299	42
Managerial & Professional	86	54	39	99	67	40	108	69	39	113	68	38
Executives & Administrators	46	19	29	53	25	32	57	25	30	58	25	30
Professionals	40	34	46	46	43	48	51	44	46	55	43	44
Technical, Sales & Administrative	77	126	62	88	142	61	90	135	60	82	136	62
Technical	12	5	29	14	6	30	18	5	22	17	7	29
Sales	46	37	45	55	43	45	52	40	43	39	43	52
Administrative Support	19	84	82	22	93	81	20	90	82	26	86	77
Service Occupations	37	51	58	35	53	60	41	59	59	39	62	61
Precision Production, Crafts & Repairs	84	7	8	91	9	9	85	6	7	79	7	8
Operators, Fabricators & Laborers	66	19	22	82	27	25	82	27	25	47	24	24
Machine Operators	20	12	38	25	18	42	26	20	43	26	15	37
Transportation & Material Moving	25	3	66	30	3	9	31	3	9	24	2	8
Handlers, Equipment Cleaners & Labors	21	4	16	27	6	18	24	4	14	24	7	23
Farming, Forestry & Fishing	18	2	10	18	4	17	20	3	13	23	2	8

NOTE: Detail may not add to total due to rounding.

a = Data equal to less than 1,000.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 3.3

Utah Fifteen Occupations Where Women Have Increased Their Employment Share 1970 and 1980

Occupational Title	Women as % of Total Employed 1970	Women as % of Total Employed 1980	Percentage Point Change 1970-1980
Insurance Adjusters, Examiners & Investigators	26.1	66.3	40.2
Hotel Clerks	47.4	82.2	34.8
Computer Operators	36.6	65.2	28.6
Science Technicians	8.3	33.2	24.9
Public Relations Specialists	20.7	45.0	24.3
Bus Drivers	3.7	26.4	22.7
Bartenders	32.9	54.2	21.3
Bakers	23.9	44.7	20.8
Waiters & Waitresses' Assistants	29.4	49.8	20.4
Production Coordinators	19.2	39.2	20.0
Stock Handlers & Baggers	3.4	23.0	19.6
Transportation, Ticket & Reservation Agents	32.4	51.8	19.4
Supervisors, Food Preparation & Service Occupations	51.2	70.2	19.0
Therapists	45.8	64.1	18.3
Investigators & Adjusters, Except Insurance	37.3	55.1	17.8

SELECTION CRITERIA: The actual number of males and females in 1970 and 1980 occupational categories equaled 100.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3.4

Utah Change in Female Share of Employment in Female Dominated Occupations, 1970 and 1980

Occupational Title	1970 Women as a % Of Total Employed	1980 Women as a % Of Total Employed	% Point Change 1970-1980
Registered Nurses	98.0	95.5	-2.5
Dietitians	100.0	84.5	-15.5
Teachers, Pre-School & Kindergarten	98.1	95.3	-2.8
Teachers, Special Education	100.0	63.0	-37.0
Licensed Practical Nurses	96.3	96.4	0.1
Secretaries	98.3	99.0	0.7
Stenographers	95.4	91.0	-4.4
Typists	94.8	97.5	2.7
Receptionists	98.3	96.5	-1.8
Personnel Clerks	91.1	85.1	-6.0
Billing, Posting, & Calculating Machine Operators	91.8	86.9	-4.9
Telephone Operators	95.1	85.7	-9.4
Data Entry Keyers	95.7	92.3	-3.4
Private Household Occupations	94.8	97.5	2.7
Waiters & Waitresses	96.6	90.9	-5.7
Dental Assistants	98.3	96.6	-1.7
Maids/housemen	93.5	82.9	-10.6
Hairdressers/cosmetologists	92.2	88.6	-3.4
Child Care Workers, Except Private Household	92.8	93.8	1.0
Dressmakers	97.0	96.8	-0.2

NOTE: Figures should be used with caution due to small sample size.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3.5

Utah Change in Female Share of Employment In Male Dominated Occupations, 1970 and 1980

Occupational Title	1970 Women As A % Of Total Employed	1980 Women As A % Of Total Employed	% Point Change 1970-1980
Purchasing Mangers	5.7	20.6	14.9
Management Analysts	15.3	27.9	12.6
Architects	0.0	7.4	7.4
Engineers	1.6	3.1	1.5
Computer System Analysts & Scientists	14.1	11.2	2.9
Statisticians	25.7	27.0	1.3
Geologists & Geodists	6.6	9.9	3.3
Physicians	5.7	10.2	4.5
Dentists	0.1	4.2	4.1
Economists	7.3	37.9	30.6
Psychologists	10.4	28.2	17.8
Lawyers & Judges	3.3	10.2	6.9
Announcers	5.0	16.8	11.8
Airplane Pilots & Navigators	0.0	1.6	1.6
Insurance Sales Occupations	7.6	13.6	6.0
Securities & Finance Services Sales Occupations	7.4	11.8	4.4
Mail Carriers, Postal Service	7.4	13.5	6.1
Firefighters	0.9	4.4	3.5
Police & Detective, Public Service	2.6	5.2	2.6
Guards	5.4	19.9	14.5
Auto Mechanics	1.6	2.5	0.9
Aircraft Mechanics	3.6	1.9	-1.7
Telephone Installers/repairers	3.2	9.9	6.7
Construction Trades	1.7	1.8	0.1
Extractive Occupations	1.4	1.6	0.2
Precision Metalworking Occupations	3.6	6.1	2.5
Welders & Cutters	2.1	3.0	0.9
Truck Drivers, Heavy	1.1	2.7	1.6
Taxicab Drivers & Chauffeurs	9.9	19.8	9.9

Note: Figures should be used with caution due to small sample size.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 3.6

United States and Utah Segregation of Working Women Into Female Dominated Occupations 1900 - 1980

Percentage Of Occupation Female	Cumulative Percent Of Employed Women In These Occupations					
	United States					Utah
	1900	1920	1940	1960	1980	1980
90 or More	38	31	34	28	32	26
80 or More	42	42	40	42	49	51
70 or More	54	43	49	50	62	58
60 or More	56	49	61	56	65	68
50 or More	60	60	65	73	76	76

SOURCE: U.S. Data, 1900-1960, Valerie Kincaid Oppenheimer, The Female Labor Force in the United States, 1970, 1980, U.S. Department of Labor. Utah Data, 1980 Census.

TABLE 3.7

Utah Persons in the Experienced Civilian Labor Force by Sex and Selected Industry 1987 Annual Averages (Numbers in Thousands)

Industry	Persons In Experienced Labor Force Total	Male	Female	Women As A Percent Of Total
Total Nonagricultural Industries	681	378	304	45
Construction	28	25	2	7
Manufacturing	101	68	33	33
Durable	64	48	16	25
Nondurable	37	20	17	46
Trans., Comm., Pub. Util.	42	31	11	26
Trade	141	75	65	46
Financial Industries	42	19	23	55
Service	125	49	75	60
Government	137	74	63	46
Agriculture	21	18	3	14

a = less than 1,000.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 3.8

United States Employed Civilians by Occupation and Sex, 1983 - 1987 (Numbers in Thousands)

	1983			1984			1985			1986			1987		
	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	% Female	Male	Female	% Female
TOTAL	56,787	44,047	44	59,091	45,915	44	59,891	47,259	44	60,892	48,706	44	62,107	50,334	45
Managerial & Professional	13,933	9,659	41	14,529	10,329	42	14,802	11,049	43	15,029	11,525	43	15,457	12,286	44
Executives & Administrators	7,282	3,490	32	7,683	3,889	34	7,871	4,351	36	7,990	4,653	37	8,263	5,053	38
Professionals	6,651	6,169	48	6,846	6,440	48	6,932	6,699	49	7,039	6,872	49	7,194	7,232	50
Technical, Sales & Administrative	11,078	20,187	65	11,556	20,920	64	11,725	21,507	65	12,130	22,223	65	12,378	22,704	65
Technical	1,582	1,471	48	1,646	1,527	48	1,719	1,537	47	1,783	1,581	47	1,721	1,624	49
Sales	6,201	5,617	48	6,550	6,032	48	6,579	6,088	48	6,862	6,383	48	7,015	6,465	48
Administrative Support	3,295	13,100	80	3,361	13,361	80	3,427	13,882	80	3,485	14,260	80	3,642	14,614	80
Service Occupations	5,530	8,326	60	5,545	8,607	61	5,695	8,747	61	5,775	8,905	61	5,924	9,130	61
Precision Production, Crafts & Repairs	11,328	1,000	8	11,945	1,112	9	12,213	1,127	8	12,256	1,150	9	12,416	1,153	8
Operators, Fabricators & Laborers	11,809	4,282	27	12,479	4,385	26	12,539	4,277	25	12,805	4,355	25	12,978	4,508	26
Machine Operators	4,484	3,259	42	4,702	3,282	41	4,681	3,159	40	4,725	3,187	40	4,699	3,295	41
Transportation & Material Moving	3,875	326	8	4,098	369	8	4,160	375	8	4,158	406	9	4,317	395	8
Handlers, Equipment Cleaners & Laborers	3,450	697	17	3,679	734	17	3,697	744	17	3,923	762	14	3,962	817	17
Farming, Forestry & Fishing	3,108	592	16	3,037	562	16	2,917	552	16	2,896	548	16	2,954	554	16

Note: Detail may not add to total due to rounding.

a = data equai to less than 1,000.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 4.1

United States Median Income by Sex, 1955-1984

	Median Income		Women's Income As a % of Men's
	Male	Female	
1955	4,241	2,735	64.5
1956	4,467	2,829	63.3
1957	4,722	3,007	63.7
1958	4,949	3,101	62.7
1959	5,241	3,206	61.2
1960	5,434	3,296	60.7
1961	5,663	3,341	59.0
1962	5,826	3,457	59.3
1963	6,070	3,556	58.6
1964	6,284	3,710	59.0
1965	6,598	3,816	57.8
1966	6,955	4,026	57.9
1967	7,289	4,198	57.6
1968	7,814	4,568	58.5
1969	8,668	5,077	58.6
1970	9,184	5,440	59.2
1971	9,631	5,701	59.2
1972	10,538	6,053	57.4
1973	11,468	6,488	56.6
1974	12,162	7,174	59.0
1975	12,934	7,719	59.7
1976	13,859	8,312	60.0
1977	15,070	8,814	58.5
1978	16,062	9,641	60.0
1979	17,479	10,531	60.2
1980	19,173	11,591	60.5
1981	20,692	12,457	60.2
1982	24,655	13,663	63.1
1983	22,483	14,466	64.3
1984	24,004	15,422	64.2

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Current Population Reports.

TABLE 4.2

United States Median Usual Weekly Earnings of Full-time Wage and Salary Workers By Age and Sex, 1980-1987

AGE	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
16 Years and Older	258	283	303	309	326	343	358	373
Male	309	345	363	379	400	406	419	433
Female	201	217	240	252	259	277	290	303
Female/Male Wage Ratio	65.0	62.9	66.1	66.5	64.8	68.2	69.2	70.0
16 to 24 Years								
Male	206	218	226	223	232	240	245	257
Female	166	180	190	201	203	210	218	226
Female/Male Wage Ratio	80.6	82.6	84.1	90.1	87.5	87.5	89.0	87.9
25 Years and Older								
Male	343	369	401	405	421	442	462	477
Female	208	232	253	263	282	296	308	321
Female/Male Wage Ratio	60.6	62.9	63.1	64.9	67.0	67.0	66.7	67.3

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 4.3

United States Median Annual Earnings of Year-round, Full-time Workers 14 Years and Over by Sex

Year	Annual Earnings Women	Annual Earnings Men	Women's Earnings As Percent Of Men's
1960	3,293	5,417	60.8
1961	3,351	5,644	59.4
1962	3,446	5,794	59.5
1963	3,561	5,978	59.6
1964	3,690	6,195	59.6
1965	3,823	6,375	60.0
1966	3,973	6,848	58.0
1967	4,150	7,182	57.8
1968	4,457	7,664	58.2
1969	4,977	8,227	60.5
1970	5,323	8,966	59.4
1971	5,593	9,399	59.5
1972	5,093	10,202	57.9
1973	6,335	11,186	56.6
1974	6,970	11,889	58.6
1975	7,504	12,758	58.8
1976	8,099	13,455	60.2
1977	8,618	14,626	58.9
1978	9,350	15,730	59.4
1979	10,151	17,014	59.7
1980	11,197	18,612	60.2
1981	12,001	20,260	59.2

NOTE: Data for 1960 to 1966 are for wage and salary workers only and exclude self-employed workers. Data for 1979 to 1981 are for persons 15 and older.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 4.4

Utah and United States 1979 Income of Persons by Household Type and Sex

	Total[1]		Median Income		Female/Male Income Ratio
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
UTAH					
15 Years & Older	488,000	511,000	$12,897	$4,391	34.0
In Household	474,000	501,000	13,235	4,475	33.8
In Family Household	418,000	429,000	13,939	4,151	29.8
Householder	314,000	40,000	16,387	7,464	45.5
In Married-couple	307,000	6,000	16,456	6,461	39.3
In Other Family	8,000	33,000	13,112	7,605	58.0
Spouse	7,000	306,000	13,234	4,338	32.8
Other Relative	93,000	79,000	3,323	2,523	75.9
Nonrelative	5,000	4,000	6,537	4,184	64.0
In Nonfamily Household	55,000	72,000	9,053	5,629	62.2
Householder	41,000	54,000	10,566	6,262	59.3
Nonrelatives	14,000	18,000	5,833	3,771	64.6
UNITED STATES					
15 Years & Older	83,825,000	91,483,000	12,192	5,263	43.2
In Household	80,739,000	88,934,000	12,558	5,423	43.2
In Family Household	69,958,000	74,648,000	12,938	5,124	39.6
Householder	49,224,000	9,966,000	15,725	6,805	43.3
In Married-couple	47,229,000	1,761,000	15,855	7,240	45.7
In Other Family	1,995,000	8,205,000	11,825	6,735	57.0
Spouse	1,792,000	47,103,000	12,840	5,560	43.3
Other Relative	17,993,000	16,769,000	4,081	3,196	78.3
Nonrelative	949,000	809,000	7,449	4,763	63.9
In Nonfamily Household	10,780,000	14,287,000	10,565	6,548	62.0
Householder	8,941,000	12,336,000	11,231	6,634	59.1
Nonrelatives	1,839,000	1,950,000	9,452	6,040	63.9

[1] Includes people without any income.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.5

Utah 1979 Earnings by Occupation, Experienced Civilian Labor Force, Year-around, Full-time Workers, by Sex, Managerial Occupations

Occupation	Median Earnings Male	Median Earnings Female	Female To Male Ratio	Female Workers As % Of Total
Managerial & Professional	$21,273	$12,386	58.2	22.8
Executive, Administrative & Managerial	21,220	11,883	56.0	21.6
Public Administrators	21,166	13,005	61.4	22.2
Administrators, Education	25,124	11,563	46.0	16.2
Managers, Medicine & Health	25,470	13,761	54.0	38.1
Other Managers	22,355	12,514	55.6	19.4
Managers & Administrators, NEC, Salaried	22,257	11,342	51.0	18.6
Manufacturing	24,413	12,861	52.7	8.8
Trans., Comm. & Pub. Util.	24,070	14,291	59.4	10.1
Trade	18,413	10,362	56.1	22.9
Other	22,897	12,049	52.6	22.4
Mangers & Administrators, NEC, Self-employed	17,242	7,467	43.3	14.1
Construction	22,555	—	—	—
Manufacturing	15,662	9,167	58.5	8.0
Trade	15,398	7,688	49.9	16.8
Other	17,726	6,714	37.9	17.9
Management Related	19,215	12,172	63.3	29.7
Accountants & Auditors	19,958	12,105	60.7	32.1
Buyers & Purchasing Agents	17,807	11,908	66.9	29.3

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.6

Utah 1979 Earnings by Occupation, Experienced Civilian Labor Force, Year-around, Full-time Workers, by Sex, Professional and Specialty Occupations

	Median Earnings			
Occupation	Male	Female	Female To Male Ratio	Female Workers As % Of Total
Professional Specialty	21,340	13,054	61.2	24.4
Engineers, Architects & Surveyors	22,796	15,923	69.8	2.7
Architects	20,477	18,443	90.1	4.3
Engineers	23,022	15,108	65.6	2.7
Electric & Electronic	23,166	20,606	88.9	3.1
Mechanical	23,393	20,053	85.7	1.7
Other	22,913	14,364	62.7	2.6
Surveyors & Mapping Scientists	13,483	—	—	—
Computer Scientists & Analysts	22,342	19,426	86.9	12.3
Natural Scientists	20,915	13,481	64.5	9.9
Health Diagnosing	40,601	17,440	43.0	6.4
Physicians	45,748	18,554	40.6	7.9
Dentists	36,481	7,000	19.2	1.0
Other	30,050	12,725	42.3	5.6
Health Assessment & Treating	20,052	14,056	70.1	72.6
Registered Nurses	16,331	14,315	87.7	94.0
Pharmacists	20,962	20,606	98.3	11.7
Therapists	19,270	12,448	64.6	56.1
Teachers, Librarians, Counselors	19,320	12,402	64.2	31.5
Post Secondary Teachers	25,061	15,667	62.5	12.8
Elementary & Pre-kindergarten	16,942	11,912	70.3	42.8
Secondary Teachers	18,034	13,309	73.8	35.9
Social Scientists & Urban Planners	19,006	11,851	62.4	23.8
Social & Recreation Workers	16,427	11,723	71.4	40.8
Religious Workers	16,638	8,000	48.1	6.6
Lawyers & Judges	27,799	15,845	57.0	7.2
Writers, Artist, Entertainers, Athletes	16,516	11,279	68.3	29.3

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.7

Utah 1979 Earnings by Occupation, Experienced Civilian Labor Force, Year-round, Full-time Workers, by Sex, Technical, Sales, & Administrative Support Occupations

	Median Earnings			
Occupation	Male	Female	Female To Male Ratio	Female Workers As % Of Total
Technical, Sales, & Admin. Support	$17,480	$9,583	54.8	50.2
Technicians & Related Support	17,684	11,234	63.5	26.2
Health Technologists & Technicians	15,629	11,016	70.5	71.7
Licensed Practical Nurses	7,571	10,191	134.6	97.2
Engineering & Science Technicians	17,107	11,917	69.7	11.7
Electric & Electronic Technicians	18,160	12,134	66.8	6.7
Drafting & Surveying Technicians	15,639	12,286	78.6	11.0
Other	19,697	11,277	57.3	19.3
Airplane Pilots & Navigators	22,437	—	—	—
Computer Programmers	19,840	12,520	63.1	12.3
Sales Occupations	17,683	8,563	48.4	24.1
Supervisors & Proprietors	16,638	8,845	53.2	19.9
Self-employed	15,338	5,391	35.1	15.8
Sales Reps, Finance & Business	20,718	10,829	52.3	19.7
Sales Reps, Commodities	19,997	11,060	55.3	8.5
Sales Reps, Retail And Personal	14,579	7,634	52.4	42.8
Cashiers	11,456	7,799	68.1	82.7
Sales Related	16,528	7,000	42.4	7.9
Administrative Support	17,136	9,615	56.1	70.9
Supervisors	21,148	12,333	58.3	40.7
Computer Operators	15,176	10,457	68.9	62.1
Secretaries, Stenographers & Typists	13,373	9,518	71.2	98.6
Secretaries	12,091	9,535	78.9	98.9
Receptionists	10,933	8,117	74.2	95.4
File Clerks	15,208	9,437	62.1	72.2
Financial Records Processing	16,835	9,503	56.4	82.5
Bookkeepers, Accounting Clerks	16,031	9,550	59.6	85.0
Telephone Operators	10,250	9,510	92.8	84.0
Mail & Message Distributing	17,322	11,673	67.4	20.6
Ttaffic, Shipping, Stock Clerks	13,734	10,154	73.9	40.5
Insurance Adjustors, Examiners	20,274	10,255	50.6	59.0
Bank Tellers	7,441	7,709	103.6	93.9
Data-entry Keyers	12,000	9,511	79.3	92.6
Other	16,996	9,725	57.2	61.3

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.8

Utah 1979 Earnings By Occupation, Experienced Civilian Labor Force, Year-round, Full-time Workers, by Sex, Service; Farming, Forestry, & Fishing Occupations

	Median Earnings			
Occupation	Male	Female	Female To Male Ratio	Female Workers As % Of Total
Service Occupations	$12,811	$6,968	54.5	39.8
Private Household	6,667	42,000	63.0	86.1
Protective Service	16,063	9,784	60.9	5.5
Firefighting	17,399	5,800	33.3	3.0
Police & Detectives, Pub.	16,282	11,625	71.4	3.6
Guards	13,719	8,766	63.9	9.8
Other	16,650	11,158	67.0	4.6
Other	10,968	6,944	63.3	49.8
Food Preparation & Service	8,684	6,338	73.0	59.3
Waiters & Food Counter	7,389	5,745	77.8	86.3
Cooks	8,856	6,938	78.3	49.5
Health Service	8,580	7,379	86.0	84.3
Nursing Aides, Orderlies	8,241	7,316	88.8	83.5
Cleaning & Building Service	11,667	6,935	59.4	22.7
Personal Service	11,677	7,353	63.0	65.9
Barbers, Hairdressers Cosmetologists	11,885	8,422	70.9	61.8
Farming, Forestry, & Fishing	11,307	6,455	57.1	4.8
Farm Operators & Managers	11,740	2,929	24.9	2.9
Other	10,108	8,724	86.3	7.4
Related Agricultural	11,557	5,825	50.4	8.2
Forestry & fishing	15,715	12,077	76.9	5.9

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.9

Utah 1979 Earnings By Occupation, Experienced Civilian Labor Force, Year-round, Full-time Workers, by Sex, Precision, Production, Craft & Repair Occupations

	Median Earnings			
Occupation	Male	Female	Female To Male Ratio	Female Workers As % Of Total
Precision, Production, Craft & Repair	17,525	10,346	59.0	5.5
Mechanics & Repairers	17,132	14,127	82.5	3.4
Auto Mechanics	15,096	14,629	96.9	1.8
Aircraft Mechanics	18,331	15,039	82.0	1.6
Heating, Air, Refrig.	16,745	—	—	—
Other	18,327	14,026	76.5	4.4
Construction Trades	17,147	9,931	57.9	1.1
Carpenters	15,004	10,182	67.9	0.9
Electricians	18,238	7,833	42.9	2.0
Painters, Construction	15,838	15,056	95.1	3.3
Plumbers, Pipefitters	19,816	7,842	39.6	2.0
Other	18,170	9,545	52.5	0.6
Extractive	21,191	15,000	70.8	1.0
Precision Production	17,665	9,584	54.3	14.4
Supervisors	19,864	11,270	56.7	14.9
Manufacturing	20,064	11,341	56.5	16.9
Precision Metalworking	17,511	9,308	53.2	4.1
Tool & Die Makers	17,071	20,453	119.8	4.0
Machinists	17,728	13,081	73.8	2.4
Sheet Metal Workers	16,970	9,000	53.0	0.4
Other	18,348	8,778	47.8	15.6
Precision Textile Apparel	11,300	7,000	61.9	44.9
Plant & System Operators	19,221	12,551	64.3	3.0
Other	15,064	8,432	56.0	23.1

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.10

Utah 1979 Earnings by Occupation, Experienced Civilian Labor Force, Year-round, Full-time Workers, by Sex, Operators, Fabricators & Laborers

	Median Earnings			
Occupation	Male	Female	Female To Male Ratio	Female Workers As % Of Total
Operators, Fabricators, & Laborers	$16,291	$8,187	50.3	18.8
Machine Operators, Assemblers	15,762	7,924	50.3	32.7
Operators & Tenders	15,687	7,733	49.3	30.7
Metal & Plastic Working	17,383	9,053	52.1	10.8
Printing	15,205	9,395	61.8	23.5
Textile, Apparel, Furnishings	12,360	7,090	57.4	85.1
Textile	12,980	6,864	52.9	46.1
Sewing	12,120	7,146	59,0	94.4
Laundering, Dry Cleaning	12,189	7,084	58.1	61.2
Other	15,858	8,513	53.7	13.9
Misc., & Not Specified	15,850	8.965	56.6	22.4
Fabricators, Assemblers	15,590	8,098	51.9	32.6
Welders & Cutters	16,780	10,478	62.4	2.5
Assemblers	12,434	8,050	64.7	60.3
Other & Handworking	14,528	8,344	57.4	31.5
Production Inspectors Samplers & Weighers	16,995	8,327	49.0	43.8
Transportation & Materials	18,177	11,000	60.5	3.5
Motor Vehicle Operators	17,131	9,816	57.3	3.8
Truck & Driver-sales Workers	17,467	9,667	55.3	3.0
Bus Driver	13,351	9,000	67.4	14.1
Rail & Water Transportation	25,573	14,403	56.3	0.7
Material Moving Equipment Operator	17,731	12,275	69.2	4.0
Excavating, Grading Dozer	17,887	–	–	–
Handlers, Cleaners, Helpers	14,186	9,021	63.6	16.0
Construction Laborers	13,254	12,137	91.6	3.8
Freight, Stock, & Material	14,917	8,590	57.6	12.6
Garage & Service Station	9,720	5,938	61.1	4.8
Hand-packers	13,676	8,286	60.6	66.6
Other	15,286	11,833	77.4	11.8
Laborers, Except Construction	14,465	9,491	65.6	14.7
Manufacturing	14,823	9,563	64.5	13.1
Nondurable	12,157	7,458	61.3	19.5
Durable, Not Specified	16,073	15,257	94.9	11.5
Metal	20,399	18,726	91.8	9.8
Nonmanufacturing	14,306	9,459	66.1	15.4
Not Classified	8,514	–	–	–

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.11

Utah Top Ten Paying Female Occupations, For Full-time, Year-round Workers, 1979

Occupation	Female Median Earnings	Female/Male Earnings Ratio	Female Workers as a Percent of Total
Computer Scientists & Analysts	$19,426	86.9	12.3
Physicians	18,554	40.6	7.9
Lawyers & Judges	15,845	57.0	7.2
Post Secondary Teachers	15,667	62.5	12.8
Engineers	15,108	65.6	2.7
Auto Mechanics	14,629	96.9	1.8
Registered Nurses	14,315	87.7	94.0
Managers, Trans., Comm., Util.	14,291	59.4	10.1
Managers, Medicine & Health	13,761	54.0	38.1
Natural Scientists	13,481	64.5	9.9

Note: Female employment in each occupation must have been at least 100.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.12

Utah Top Ten Paying Male Occupations For Full-time, Year-round Workers, 1979

Occupation	Male Median Earnings	Female/Male Earnings Ratio	Female Workers as a Percent of Total
Physicians	$45,748	40.6	7.9
Dentists	36,481	19.2	1.0
Health Diagnosing except Physicians &Dentists	30,050	42.3	5.6
Lawyers & Judges	27,299	57.0	7.2
Rail & Water Transportation Occupations	25,573	56.3	0.7
Mangers Medicine & Health	25,470	54.0	38.1
Administrators, Education	25,124	46.0	16.2
Post Secondary Teachers	25,061	62.5	12.8
Managers & Administrators, Manufacturing	24,413	52.7	8.8
Managers & Administrators Trans., Comm. & Pub. Utilities	24,070	59.4	10.1

Note: Female employment in each occupation must have been at least 100.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.13

Utah Ten Occupations With Highest Female/Male Pay Ratio, Year-round, Full-time Workers, 1979

Occupation	Female/male Earnings Ratio	Female Median Wage	Percent Of Female Workers
Auto Mechanics	96.9	$14,629	1.8
Painters, Construction & Maintenance	95.1	15,056	3.3
Laborers, Durable Manufacturing	94.9	15,257	11.5
Nursing Aides, Orderlies & Attendant	88.8	7,316	83.5
Registered Nurses	87.7	14,315	94.0
Computer Scientists & Analysts	86.9	19,426	12.3
Secretaries	78.9	9,535	98.9
Drafting & Surveying Technicians	78.6	12,286	11.0
Cooks	78.3	6,938	49.5
Waiters & Food Counter Workers	77.8	5,754	86.3

Note: Female employment must equal 100 or more for occupation to be included.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.14

Utah Median Income for Individuals 18 Years and Older by Sex and Education, 1979

	Elementary		High School			College			
Age	Total	0-7 Years	8 Years	1-3 Years	4 Years	1-3 Years	4 Years	5-6 Years	7 Or More
Total 18 & Over									
Male	6,818	7,863	9,835	13,237	13,474	18,163	19,872	23,134	13,760
Female	3,428	3,405	3,631	5,028	4,734	6,794	9,786	11,823	4,754
Earnings Ratio	50.3	43.3	36.9	38.0	35.1	37.4	49.2	51.1	34.5
18-24 Years									
Male	3,771	4,658	4,875	7,490	5,484	6,644	6,395	6,400	6,298
Female	2,760	2,954	2,327	3,912	3,498	5,247	5,017	3,281	3,527
Earnings Ratio	73.2	63.4	47.7	52.2	63.8	79.0	78.5	51.3	56.0
25-34 Years									
Male	6,682	9,909	12,950	15,125	14,618	15,833	15,702	15,781	15,046
Female	4,000	3,713	4,161	5,479	5,626	7,332	9,365	10,981	5,770
Earnings Ratio	59.9	37.5	32.1	36.2	38.5	46.3	59.6	69.6	38.3
35-44 Years									
Male	10,917	14,413	16,368	18,280	19,937	21,930	22,773	25,708	20,062
Female	3,967	4,659	5,269	6,151	6,526	6,489	10,687	12,152	6,191
Earnings Ratio	37.2	33.8	32.2	33.8	37.4	36.7	54.5	58.0	33.3
55-64 Years									
Male	9,394	11,620	14,538	16,925	19,146	25,024	24,588	29,928	17,562
Female	3,801	3,694	4,388	6,142	7,616	10,587	15,094	15,496	6,063
Earnings Ratio	40.5	31.8	30.2	36.3	39.8	42.3	61.4	51.8	34.5
65 & Over									
Male	5,616	6,247	7,278	8,596	10,071	11,948	14,264	17,455	7,891
Female	3,140	3,279	3,550	3,930	4,238	6,138	8,529	9,146	3,798
Earnings Ratio	55.9	52.5	48.8	45.7	42.1	51.4	59.8	52.4	48.1

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.15

Utah and United States 1979 Mean Earnings of Married Couple Families by Labor Force Status

	Percent Of Total Married Couple Families		Mean Family Earnings		Wife's Erngs As A % Of Family Erngs	
	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	$20,759	$21,480	15.8	19.1
Husband & Wife Worked In 1979	52.2	50.8	23,969	26,649	24.6	27.8
Both Usually Worked Full-time	29.2	33.2	25,856	27,645	30.3	32.7
Both Worked 50 To 52 Weeks	12.9	17.0	30,546	30,963	33.7	35.2
Husband Worked Less Than 40 Weeks	3.1	3.1	15,864	17,861	42.8	44.6
Wife Worked 50 To 52 Weeks	1.1	1.4	19,389	20,363	51.7	51.7
Husband Usually Worked Full-time Wife Part-time	19.0	14.7	23,032	26,072	12.9	14.6
Husband Worked Less Than 40 Weeks	1.5	1.1	12,459	14,552	21.5	23.5
Husband Usually Worked Part-time	2.2	1.7	16,373	19,495	46.8	47.0
Wife Worked 50 To 52 Weeks	1.0	1.0	18,424	21,434	55.5	51.5
Husband & Wife Usually Worked Part-time	1.8	1.2	12,815	16,532	26.4	26.8
Husband Did Not Work In 1979, Wife Worked In 1979	2.7	4.0	9,124	9,774	78.5	78.0
Wife Worked 50 To 52 Weeks	1.4	2.2	11,698	12,074	81.7	81.3
Husband Worked In 1979, Wife Did Not Work	36.1	32.5	21,822	22,580	–	–
Husband & Wife Did Not Work	9.0	12.6	1,315	1,546	–	–

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.16

Utah and United States 1979 Mean Earnings of Married Couple Families By Years of School Completed

	Percent Of Total Married Couple Families		Mean Family Earnings		Wife's Erngs As a % Of Family Erngs	
	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.	Utah	U.S.
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	$20,759	$21,480	15.8	19.1
Husband-4 Or More Years Of College	49.8	35.5				
Wife-4 Or More Years Of College	30.1	21.0	23,977	30,664	15.3	19.9
Wife-4 Years High School To 1-3 Years College	19.2	13.8	22,606	25,462	13.9	15.5
Wife-less Than 4 Years High School	0.5	0.7	16,415	16,862	9.8	13.9
Husband-4 Years High School To 1-3 Years College	44.6	47.8				
Wife-4 Or More Years Of College	7.2	6.8	20,311	22,433	22.0	26.6
Wife-4 Years High School To 1-3 Years College	35.9	37.2	19,120	19,902	16.2	18.6
Wife-less Than 4 Years High School	1.5	3.7	13,390	13,582	14.1	14.5
Husband-less Than 4 Years High School	5.6	16.7				
Wife-4 Or More Years Of College	0.6	1.0	13,422	14,524	23.0	29.8
Wife-4 Years High School To 1-3 Years College	3.2	7.9	11,641	13,765	19.4	21.1
Wife-less Than 4 Years High School	1.8	7.8	7,675	9,251	16.7	16.6

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.17

Utah & United States Persons Below Specified Poverty Level In 1979 by Age and Sex

	Income In 1979 Below Poverty Level		Percent By Sex	Percent By Age
	Number	Percent		
UTAH				
Female	83,885	11.6	56.7	100.0
Under 16 Years	27,035	11.5	49.8	32.2
16-21	16,509	19.2	63.2	19.7
22-24	7,530	16.2	54.0	9.0
25-34	12,177	10.3	57.0	14.5
35-44	5,232	7.3	57.0	6.2
45-54	2,776	4.9	56.8	3.3
55-59	1,616	5.9	61.7	1.9
60-64	1,955	8.1	60.9	2.3
65 and over	9,055	15.1	73.2	10.8
Male	64,120	9.0	43.3	100.0
Under 16 Years	27,306	11.1	50.2	42.6
16-21	9,605	12.5	36.8	15.0
22-24	6,411	13.4	46.0	10.0
25-34	9,169	7.6	43.0	14.3
35-44	3,948	5.6	43.0	6.2
45-54	2,114	3.8	43.2	3.3
55-59	1,002	3.9	38.3	1.6
60-64	1,253	5.7	39.1	2.0
65 and over	3,312	7.3	26.8	5.2
UNTIED STATES (000s)				
Female	15,756	13.8	57.5	100.0
Under 16 Years	4,495	16.8	49.4	28.5
16-21	2,051	17.4	55.8	13.0
22-24	969	15.6	58.2	6.2
25-34	2,168	11.6	60.8	13.8
35-44	1,293	9.9	60.7	8.2
45-54	1,000	8.5	59.9	6.3
55-59	607	9.9	63.1	3.9
60-64	663	12.3	64.1	4.2
65 and over	2,150	17.6	70.1	15.9
Male	11,636	10.9	42.5	100.0
Under 16 Years	4,613	16.5	50.6	39.0
16-21	1,624	13.9	44.2	14.0
22-24	696	11.7	41.8	6.0
25-34	1,400	7.7	39.2	12.0
35-44	838	6.7	39.3	7.2
45-54	668	6.1	40.1	5.7
55-59	355	6.5	36.9	3.1
60-64	371	8.0	35.9	3.2
65 and over	1,072	10.8	29.9	9.2

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 4.18

Utah & United States Persons Below Poverty Level by Relationship and Sex, 1969 & 1979

	Income In 1969 Below Poverty Level		Income In 1979 Below Poverty Level	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
UTAH				
Persons In Families With Female Householder, No Husband Present	31,700	31.1	25,444	39.4
Female Households	9,372	28.0	6,385	34.7
Related Children Under 18	20,568	41.7	16,507	50.9
Other Relatives	1,760	9.2	2,102	16.9
Persons In Families With Male Householder	73,778	6.2	62,176	6.9
Male Households	17,761	5.5	16,019	7.0
Related Children Under 18	36,418	7.6	28,483	7.3
Other Relatives	19,599	5.0	17,674	6.2
UNITED STATES (000s)				
Persons In Families With Female Householder, NoHusband Present	8,638	34.4	6,920	38.2
Female Households	2,484	30.3	1,801	32.5
Related Children Under 18	5,126	47.8	4,285	52.7
Other Relatives	1,027	16.6	834	16.9
Persons In Families With Male Householder	11,894	7.1	14,184	8.7
Male Households	3,186	6.2	3,682	8.1
Related Children Under 18	4,899	9.4	6,157	10.1
Other Relatives	3,809	5.8	4,346	7.6

NOTE: Excludes persons in group quarters and unrelated individuals under 15.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Cenus.

TABLE 5.1

Time Use of Working Adults at Work and at Home by Sex, 1965 and 1975

	Minutes Per Day									
	Married Men		Unmarried Men		Married Women		Unmarried Women		Average	
Activity	1965	1975	1965	1975	1965	1975	1965	1975	1965	1975
Total Work Time	548	523	534	435	602	515	548	517	559	503
Labor Market Time[1]	451	428	454	353	337	276	350	353	409	367
Main Job	383	365	394	309	294	242	300	305	350	316
Second Job	9	7	8	2	2	0	5	0	7	3
Travel To Work	43	40	33	34	28	21	31	32	37	33
Work At Home										
Housework	23	25	37	38	181	143	121	89	76	64
Household Repairs, Upkeep, Gardening	13	18	2	10	4	10	2	7	8	13
Child Care	17	15	5	5	29	31	19	27	19	19
Shopping, Financial	44	37	36	29	51	55	56	41	47	40
Total Nonwork Time	891	918	904	1,004	839	925	893	923	881	937
Personal Care	639	642	636	667	652	685	671	684	647	662
Education	10	18	20	34	4	7	17	20	11	20
Organizations	16	15	15	12	9	16	23	10	16	15
Social Events	35	29	76	48	30	35	46	36	39	34
Active Leisure	26	31	27	59	23	24	16	24	24	34
Passive Leisure										
Tv Viewing	103	132	73	118	59	105	66	94	84	117
Other	62	51	57	66	62	53	54	55	60	55
Sample Size[2]	448	248	73	86	190	119	152	104	864	557

[1] Labor Market participation was defined by 10 or more nours per week; figures include time at lunch.

[2] Subgroup sample sizes may not add to totals due to missing data.

SOURCE: Frank P. Safford, "Women's Use of Time Converging with Men's", Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 103, No. 12, (December 1980), based on national time use surveys conducted by the Survey Research center of the University of Michigan.

TABLE 5.2

United States Perceived Ideal Lifestyle by Age, Percentage Distribution, 1975 and 1982

Perceived Ideal Lifestyle	Year	Total	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 +
Lifestyle 1 Be mainly a job holder or career women	1975	5	9	5	5	4	6	6
	1982	12	16	9	9	12	9	9
Lifestyle 2 Be mainly a homemaker	1975	22	9	10	21	28	30	40
	1982	20	6	11	17	25	28	41
Lifestyle 3 Combine homemaking with career using child care if necessary	1975	24	31	27	30	22	17	12
	1982	22	25	25	24	22	19	25
Lifestyle 4 Stay home with children when young, then combine career and homemaking	1975	49	51	58	44	46	47	42
	1982	46	53	55	50	41	44	25

SOURCE: Market Opinion Research, as reported in American Demographics, August 1983.

TABLE 5.3

United States Perceived Ideal Lifestyle by Lifestage, Percentage Distribution, 1982

Ideal Lifestyle	Total	Young Single (Under 35)	Young Married (under 35, No Children)	Married Mother (Children at Home)	Divorced or Separated	Older Married (35+ Children At Home)	Older Single (35+)	Widow
Lifestyle 1 Be mainly a job holder or career women	12	25	8	4	27	5	49	1
Lifestyle 2 Be mainly a homemaker	20	5	10	15	8	35	17	35
Lifestyle 3 Combine homemaking with career using child care if necessary	22	23	24	26	26	19	18	16
Lifestyle 4 Stay home with children when young, then combine career and homemaking	46	47	58	55	39	41	16	36

SOURCE: Market Opinion Research, as reported in American Demographics, August 1983.

TABLE 5.4

Utah Children By Age and Parent's Status, Percentage Distribution, 1982

	Parents Work	Parents Do Not Work	Parents Would Work If Adequate Child Care Available
0-1 Year	53	47	31
2-5 Years	72	28	22
6-9 Years	65	35	23
10-14 Years	69	31	17

NOTE: Employment status pertains only to parent who completed the survey form.

SOURCE: "WHO'S TAKING CARE OF OUR KINDS?", A Report on a child care survey conducted by Utah Issues Information Program, April 1982.

TABLE 5.5

Utah Child Care Arrangements of Parents Who Work, 1982

Child Care Arrangements	Percentage Distribution
Child Care Centers	53
Sitter, Outside Home	25
Children In School	24
Family Member	22
Sitter, In Home	7
Children Left Alone	4
Take Children To Work	4
Other	4

NOTE: Percentages do not add to 100 as respondents may use more than one type of child care.

SOURCE: "Who's Taking Care of Our Kids?", A report on a child care survey conducted by Utah Issues Information Program, April 1982.

TABLE 5.6

United States Marital Status, Employment, and Health

Age & Marital Status	Average Number of Restricted Activity Days Per Year		Average Number of Bed Disability Days Per Year		Average Number of Acute Conditions Per Year		Percent With Any Active Limitations Due To Chronic Conditions		Percent With Excellent or Good Health	
	Employed	Not In Labor Force	Employed	Not In Labor Force	Employed	Not In Labor Force	Employed	Not In Labor Force	Employed	Not In Labor Force
17-24										
Married										
With Children	14.6	17.1	6.3	8.4	3.0	2.6	3.8	4.4	90.9	89.3
No Children	13.0	19.2	5.5	8.2	3.2	3.0	3.5	6.5	93.8	87.9
Not Married										
With Children	8.1	15.3	4.1	8.5	2.2	2.4	3.5	8.1	93.8	87.4
No Children	12.0	12.8	5.7	5.0	3.2	2.5	3.8	7.2	94.2	91.5
25-34										
Married										
With Children	15.0	16.6	5.4	6.3	2.5	2.6	5.1	6.6	92.2	91.2
No Children	11.8	22.4	4.0	10.1	2.7	2.1	5.2	9.0	94.6	88.3
Not Married										
With Children	18.4	30.2	7.5	13.7	3.0	2.6	6.0	22.4	88.1	70.7
No Children	16.3	46.7	6.0	24.8	3.0	1.8	7.6	36.3	92.4	69.8
35-44										
Married										
With Children	12.6	18.0	5.9	7.6	1.8	1.8	7.4	11.2	91.0	87.6
No Children	12.7	25.2	5.1	9.6	1.8	1.4	8.0	19.6	89.0	77.3
Not Married										
With Children	19.4	58.5	7.1	24.6	2.1	2.6	11.0	36.2	85.1	55.1
No Children	17.7	64.1	6.6	23.1	2.5	1.7	10.4	58.8	89.6	52.7
45-54										
Married										
With Children	12.4	24.7	5.2	7.8	1.7	1.5	9.0	20.5	87.2	78.1
No Children	14.2	32.0	4.9	11.9	1.5	1.5	10.1	25.3	86.8	75.5
Not Married										
With Children	22.0	67.6	5.7	29.1	2.2	1.2	14.6	51.6	78.3	49.8
No Children	17.9	82.0	5.8	32.6	2.0	2.0	12.6	58.3	86.8	48.8
55-64										
Married										
With Children	12.5	32.8	5.6	10.1	0.8	1.4	12.7	28.2	83.9	69.4
No Children	13.9	30.1	4.2	11.0	1.4	1.2	12.5	30.1	83.9	70.8
Not Married										
With Children	26.5	65.3	6.9	18.6	1.7	1.7	18.4	51.1	81.8	50.0
No Children	18.2	67.7	6.6	23.4	1.6	1.8	16.3	51.8	85.8	52.7

SOURCE: National Health Interview Survey for pooled years 1977-1978 as reported in American Demographics, March 1985